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ABSTRACT

Men and women in higher education administration were studied to determine the nature of self-orientation, family orientation, and career orientation. Of 900 female and male subjects randomly selected from national data bases and stratified according to sex and administrative level, 561 responded, and 40 percent of the sample were nuns and priests. The Higher Education Career Questionnaire, which includes 1 self-orientation scale, 4 family-orientation scales, and 10 career orientation scales, was administered. Women and men were found to differ with respect to self, family, and career, although the pattern of results was complex. Females, compared to males, had significantly higher self-orientation scores at the two lowest administrative levels and experienced a greater amount of crises and conflict. Married subjects experienced more conflict than singles and monastics, whereas monastics had the highest degree of life satisfaction. Marital status was the most significant factor differentiating subjects on each of the four family-orientation scales. Married subjects reported the highest negative effects of family, but monastic subjects reported the highest positive effects of family, and singles the lowest on this scale. For a significant majority of female college presidents (monastics), family was found to operate in a supportive, positive way that was not the case for married or single subjects. Nine of the 10 career-orientation scales had significant results: females compared to males reported their careers were more important to them, perceived their careers in more positive terms, had greater limits on job mobility, and perceived the positive consequences of their careers more highly. (SW)

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LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION:
CONSEQUENCES OF CAREER COMMITMENTS

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ABSTRACT

The present investigation sought to determine if women and men at differing levels of administration also differed in their orientations to "Self," "Family," and "Career," and whether these issues differed for academic leaders of secular versus religious institutions.

Of 900 female and male subjects randomly selected from national data bases and stratified according to sex and administrative level, 561 (62.3%) responded. Separate analyses of variance were conducted in a $2 \times 4 \times 3$ design, including two levels of sex, four levels of higher education administration (high, middle, entry and non-administrative), and three levels of marital status (monastic, married, single). The major dependent variables included one "Self-Orientation" scale, four "Family-Orientation" scales, and ten "Career-Orientation" scales.

Women and men were found to differ with respect to "Self," "Family," and "Career," although the pattern of results was complex, and, at times, unexpected. Females, compared to males, had significantly higher "Self-Orientation" scores at the two lowest administrative levels, experienced a greater amount of crises and conflict. Married subjects experienced more conflict than singles and monastics, whereas monastics had the highest degree of life satisfaction.

Marital status proved to be the most significant factor differentiating subjects on each of the four "Family-Orientation" scales. As expected, married subjects reported the highest "Negative Effects of Family," but contrary to expectations, monastic subjects reported the highest "Positive Effects of Family," and singles the lowest on this scale. For a significant majority of female college presidents (monastics), "Family" was found to operate in a supportive, positive way that was not the case for married or single subjects. Results further suggest that "Family" operates differently for females than it does for males.

Nine of the ten "Career-Orientation" scales had significant results: females compared to males reported their careers were more important to them, perceived their careers in more positive terms, had greater limits on job mobility, and perceived the positive consequences of their careers more highly. Results suggest that the research literature and theory is incomplete with respect to the effects of sex, administrative level, and marital status on career issues.

LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION:
CONSEQUENCES OF CAREER COMMITMENTS

Objectives

Studies of leaders in business and higher education indicate that there are different consequences for women than for men with high career commitments and aspirations (Mark, 1981). For example, while men with high career commitments can expect to have a relatively stable, enduring, and supportive marital relationship, women with high career commitments cannot. If, in fact, such consequences differ for women compared to men, it is important to understand the nature of such differences, as well as the manner in which top female academic leaders have resolved the problems resulting. The purpose of this research was to investigate the following issues with regard to women and men in higher education administration: (1) the nature of "Self-Orientation" and those factors comprising an emphasis on one's self-development, (2) the nature of "Family-Orientation" and those factors comprising an emphasis on one's family commitments, (3) the nature of "Career-Orientation" and those factors comprising an emphasis on one's career commitments, (4) the effects of sex, administrative level and marital status (independent variables) on "Self," "Family," and "Career" orientations (dependent variables).

Perspectives and Theoretical Framework

Leadership studies have typically used subjects who were inexperienced and unrepresentative for the leadership dimension. However, Kanter (1977) and Hennig and Jardim (1977) used a variety of comparisons between men and women, as well as among different levels of women, to study leadership in a business setting. Studies comparable to these have yet to be conducted in the college and university setting, leaving a gap in knowledge about the leadership dimension in higher education. Further, although a majority of female college presidents are Roman Catholic nuns (between 50% and 75%), the dimension of marital status called "Monastic" has seldom been studied in the secular literature. This study of leadership in higher education includes women and men who are at differing levels of administrative leadership and who are of different levels of marital status, including Monastics.

Methods and Techniques

A survey research method was used via a mail campaign to 900 higher education administrators. The "Higher Education Career Questionnaire" was an eight-page survey covering a variety of issues including specific ones having to do with a "Self-Orientation" and other self-related variables, "Family-Orientations" and other family-related variables, and "Career-Orientations" and other career-related variables. Dependent variables included the "Self-Scale" which was calculated from subjects' responses to items dealing with concerns for self-development, hobbies pursued, extent of support system, amount of travel, and willingness to accept a job in another locale. The "Family-Orientation" involved responses to fifty-one (51) variables dealing with family commitment issues. A correlation matrix was completed of these 51 variables and four "Family-Scales" derived, using a set of rules established for scale development in the family domain (Mark, 1982) because they appeared to reflect different aspects of family issues. Subjects' responses to the variables within each scale could then be added and a mean score computed. The dependent variables included the following four family scales: (1) Positive effects of family, (2) Negative effects of family, (3) Family responsibilities, and (4) Family plans. With respect to "Career-Orientation," an index was constructed from responses to career issues and a correlation matrix completed which included ninety-seven (97) variables. Using the same set of rules (Mark, 1982), ten career scales were derived reflecting different aspects of career issues: (1) Importance of a career, (2) Positive reasons for a job change, (3) Negative reasons for a job change, (4) Limits on job mobility, (5) Positive consequences of a career, (6) Negative consequences of a career, (7) Professional activities, (8) Continuity of work history, (9) Activity and variety of work experiences, and (10) Amount of job activity. Analyses of variance were calculated in a $2 \times 4 \times 3$ design (sex, administrative level, marital status), along with post hoc comparisons and other demographic variables such as self-, family- and work-related factors.

Data Source

Of the 900 individuals contacted, 561 responded for a 62.3% response rate. The 900 individuals were selected from a stratified random national sample of higher education administrators, including Chiefs (presidents and

chancellors), Deans (all deanship levels), Other-Administrators (directors, coordinators, entry-level administrators), and a comparison group of Non-Administrators (faculty). All of the women college presidents in the United States were contacted. Of the 561 subjects responding, 55% were female, 45% were male; 27% were Chiefs, 27% were Deans, 33% were Other-Administrators, and 13% were Non-Administrators. Of additional interest is the fact that 40% of the sample that responded were nuns and priests, included because of the overwhelming number of women college presidents reported to be Roman Catholic nuns.

Results

Results of data analyses will be discussed separately in terms of (1) the "Self-Orientation" scale, (2) those demographic variables that are self-related, (3) the "Family-Orientation" scales, (4) those demographic variables that are family-related, (5) each of the ten "Career-Orientation" scales, and (6) those demographic variables that are work-related. It should be noted that all demographic variables were analyzed with Chi-square and Studentized t-tests, and are reported separately as a function of sex, administrative level, and marital status.

"Self-Orientation"

In answer to the first research question, women and men at differing levels of higher education administration and of different marital statuses were found to differ in their "Self-Orientations." Results indicated a significant main effect for Sex ($F = 4.06$; $df = 1, 474$; $p = .0445$) and a significant interaction between Sex and Administrative Level ($F = 4.75$; $df = 3, 474$; $p = .0028$), and between Administrative Level and Marital Status ($F = 2.50$; $df = 6, 474$; $p = .0215$). Results of these analyses were then subjected to post hoc comparisons.

The main effect for Sex indicated that Females' score for "Self-Orientation" ($\bar{X} = 4.83$) was significantly higher than that for Males ($\bar{X} = 4.64$) at the $p = .0445$ level.

The interaction between Sex and Administrative Level indicated that Males differed significantly from one another with scores that were ordinal with respect to Administrative Level. That is, Male Chiefs' score ($\bar{X} = 4.935$) was highest, followed by Deans ($\bar{X} = 4.919$),

Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.565$) and Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.129$). Male Non-Administrators' score was significantly lower than Male Chiefs ($p = .01$), Male Deans ($p = .01$) and Male Other-Administrators ($p = .05$). The score for Female Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.849$) was higher than that for Male Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.565$), and the difference was significant ($p = .05$). Female Non-Administrators' score ($\bar{X} = 4.930$) was higher than Male Non-Administrators' score ($\bar{X} = 4.129$), and this difference was also significant ($p = .01$). Although Females did not differ significantly from one another on the "Self-Orientation" scale, it should be noted that Females' scores were disordinal with respect to Administrative Level. This was the reverse of the pattern found for Males.

The interaction between Administrative Level and Marital Status indicated that within the Single Marital Status, Single Chiefs' score was highest ($\bar{X} = 5.149$), followed by Single Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.124$), Single Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.696$), and Single Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.178$). The scores of Single Chiefs and Single Deans were both significantly higher than that of Single Non-Administrators ($p = .01$). No significant differences were found within the Monastic or Married Marital Statuses. Within the group of Chiefs, Single Chiefs' score was highest ($\bar{X} = 5.149$), followed by Married Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 4.792$) and Monastic Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 4.658$). The difference in scores of Single Chiefs and Monastic Chiefs was significant ($p = .05$). Within the group of Deans, Single Deans' scores were highest ($\bar{X} = 5.124$), followed by Monastic Deans ($\bar{X} = 4.736$), and Married Deans ($\bar{X} = 4.631$). The difference in scores of Single Deans and Married Deans was significant ($p = .05$). Within the group of Non-Administrators, Monastics' score was highest ($\bar{X} = 4.924$), followed by Married Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.485$) and Single Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.178$). The difference in scores of Monastic and Single Non-Administrators was significant ($p = .05$). No significant differences were found within the group of Other-Administrators.

Self-Related Demographic Factors

Six variables were characterized as self-related factors, including: (1) Whether or not subjects had their own personal bank account, (2) Whether or not subjects had had a role model, or (3) a mentor, (4) Degree to which subjects experienced conflict, and (5) Crisis, and (6) Degree of

life satisfaction.

Chi-square analyses revealed that only Marital Status resulted in significant differences for the variable "Personal Bank Account" ($\chi^2 = 101.61$; $df = 4$; $p = .0001$). Monastics were most likely NOT to have their own personal bank account (YES = 68 or 13%, NO = 137 or 26%), while Singles were most likely to have one (YES = 110 or 21%, NO = 13 or 2%). Married subjects were more likely to have their own bank accounts than not (YES = 119 or 22%, NO = 82 or 16%).

While a majority of subjects reported they had not had a Role Model (YES = 220, NO = 284), more Females (N = 132 or 26%) than Males (N = 88 or 17%) reported having had one. Chi-square analyses revealed a significant difference by Sex ($\chi^2 = 6.73$; $df = 2$; $p = .0346$). No other significant differences were found for Role Model.

A similar pattern of results was found for the variable "Had a Mentor." Although a majority of subjects reported they had not had a Mentor (YES = 216, NO = 312), more Females (N = 129 or 24.5%) than Males (N = 87 or 16%) reported having had one. Chi-square analyses revealed a significant difference for Sex ($\chi^2 = 3.951$; $df = 1$; $p = .0468$). No other significant differences were found for Mentor.

The variable "Amount of Conflict Experienced in the Preceding Year" was measured by a seven-point, Likert-type scale ranging from "No Conflict" (1), to "Extensive Conflict" (7). Analyses of variance revealed significant differences for Marital Status ($F = 6.417$; $df = 2$; $p = .0018$). Post hoc comparisons indicated that Married subjects had experienced the most conflict ($\bar{X} = 3.87$), and significantly more conflict than Monastic subjects ($\bar{X} = 3.30$) according to the Tukey HSD test ($p = .05$). Females experienced more conflict ($\bar{X} = 3.63$) than Males ($\bar{X} = 3.38$), and Deans experienced more conflict ($\bar{X} = 3.71$) than Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 3.58$), Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 3.57$) or Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 3.29$). However, none of these differences were significant.

The variable "Extent of Life Crises Experienced in the Preceding Year" was also measured by a seven-point, Likert-type scale ranging from "No Crises" (1), to "Extensive Crises" (7). Analyses of variance revealed significant differences for Sex only ($t = 3.5$; $df = 519$; $p = .000$), with Females reporting more crises ($\bar{X} = 2.79$) than Males ($\bar{X} = 2.19$).

While not significantly different, Chiefs in this study experienced the fewest crises of all administrative groups ($\bar{X} = 2.29$), with Monastics in this study reporting the fewest crises of all Marital Statuses ($\bar{X} = 2.43$). Single subjects in this study reported the most crises of all Marital Statuses ($\bar{X} = 2.75$).

Finally, the degree of subjects' "Life Satisfaction" was measured on a seven-point, Likert-type scale ranging from "Not at all Satisfied" (1), to "Highly satisfied" (7). Analyses of variance revealed significant differences only for Marital Status ($F = 4.171$; $df = 2$; $p = .016$). Post hoc comparisons indicated that Monastic subjects were significantly more satisfied ($p = .05$, Tukey HSD test) with a mean of $\bar{X} = 5.91$ than Single subjects ($\bar{X} = 5.60$), but not more than Married subjects ($\bar{X} = 5.72$). While not significantly different, in this study Chiefs reported the highest degree of life satisfaction of all administrative groups ($\bar{X} = 5.91$), followed by Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.82$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 5.66$), and Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 5.66$). Although Sex was not a significant factor for "Extent of Life Satisfaction," Females' scores had significantly greater variance than Males' scores ($F = 1.29$; $p = .039$), while the means of the two groups were virtually the same (Females: $\bar{X} = 5.76$, Males: $\bar{X} = 5.78$; $t = -.18$; $df = 537$; $p = .854$).

"Family-Orientation"

In answer to the second research question, women and men at differing levels of higher education administration and of different marital statuses were found to differ in one or more aspects of "Family-Orientation" scales. Composition of these scales and rules for eligibility are described extensively in Mark (1982).

Each of subjects' "Family-Orientation" scores was subjected to a $2 \times 4 \times 3$ (Sex, Administrative Level, Marital Status) analysis of variance, except where noted. Results of these analyses were then subjected to post hoc comparisons (Tukey tests), and are reported separately.

Family-Scale 1: Positive Effects of Family. Results indicated a significant main effect for Marital Status ($F = 3.16$; $df = 2, 439$; $p = .0435$). Monastic subjects had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 6.086$), followed by Married subjects ($\bar{X} = 5.955$) and Single subjects ($\bar{X} = 5.65$). The scores for Monastic and Married subjects were both significantly higher than that for Singles ($p = .01$, $p = .05$ respectively).

Family-Scale 2: Negative Effects of Family. A significant main effect for Marital Status was found ($F = 10.70$; $df = 2, 392$; $p = .0000$). Married subjects had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 2.146$), followed next by Single subjects ($\bar{X} = 1.835$) and last by Monastic subjects ($\bar{X} = 1.456$). The scores for Married and Single subjects were both significantly higher than that for Monastic subjects ($p = .01$, $p = .05$ respectively). No other differences or interactions were found to be significant.

Family-Scale 3: Family Responsibilities. The third "Family-Orientation Scale" was analyzed differently from the others. As discussed in Mark (1982, Ch. 3) Males' scores for "YOUR RESPONSIBILITY" and "PARTNER'S RESPONSIBILITY" were inverted, so that "YOURS" always referred to a Female and "PARTNER'S" always referred to a Male. In addition, subjects' scores were inverted once more so that "1" always meant "FEMALES DID WORK" (subject or subject's partner), "2" always meant "BOTH SHARED EQUALLY", and "3" always meant "MALES DID WORK" (subject or subject's partner). This final inversion of scores produced a continuum of work, at one end of which was performed primarily by Females, in the middle of which was shared equally, and at the other end was performed primarily by Males. Composition of "Family-Orientation Scale 3" and rules for eligibility are to be found in Mark (1982).

In actuality, "Family-Orientation Scale 3: Family Responsibilities" involved a response format that dealt with two different theoretical issues. First, given the fact that there are chores to be done by one or one's partner, or shared by both, how does this work get done? This issue suggests that there is a 'theoretical' opportunity for each subject's partner either to share the work or to do it alone. Or, put another way, the issue assumes that there is a partner theoretically available with whom subjects can share the chores of "Family Responsibilities." Because of this theoretical assumption, the mean scores of responses "1," "2," and "3" to at least 17 of 24 variables in this scale were subjected to a different analysis from previous scales.

A 2×4 (Sex, Administrative Level) analysis of variance was employed using only those responses from Married subjects ($N = 191$).

Subjects whose Marital Status was Single or Monastic were eliminated from consideration within this response format of "Family-Orientation Scale 3," since it could not be assumed a partner existed for all such subjects with whom "Family Responsibilities" could be shared. It should be noted that a large number of Monastic subjects indicated their religious community "Shared" the responsibilities, and that some Single subjects reported living with a "Partner." Nonetheless, in order to avoid confusion in interpreting the results, such "Sharing" of responsibilities was not considered directly relevant to other than Married subjects.

Results of this 2 x 4 (Sex, Administrative Level) analysis of variance for the first issue of "Family Responsibilities" using the scores of Married subjects only revealed no significant differences, either for Sex, Administrative Level, or for their interaction.

The second theoretical issue involved in "Family-Orientation Scale 3" dealt with those chores not done by subjects, their partners, or shared by both. That is, when the partners neither do the chore themselves nor share it, then this work gets done by someone else. Thus response #4, "ANOTHER'S RESPONSIBILITY," is the response format chosen when someone other than the subject or subject's partner completes the task. In order to make sense of the results for interpretation, another analysis was conducted. Subjects were still considered eligible if they had responded to at least 17 of 24 items (70%) on this scale. The score for each subject was calculated as the percent of items responded to with "ANOTHER'S RESPONSIBILITY" (#4). These mean scores, representing a ratio of items done by "ANOTHER" were then subjected to a separate 2 x 4 (Sex, Administrative Level) analysis of variance for each of the three Marital Statuses. This individual analysis for Monastics, Marrieds, and Singles, reported separately, was done to avoid problems in interpretation. This was the same reason for the analysis of responses to choices "1," "2," and "3", already described.

Percent of Items Done by Another: Monastics:

Results of the 2 x 4 (Sex, Administrative Level) analysis of

variance revealed significant Sex differences ($F = 25.72$; $df = 1, 91$; $p = .0000$) among the Monastic subjects responding ($N = 99$). Male Monastic subjects, significantly more often than Female Monastic subjects, chose someone else to perform chores listed in "Family-Orientation Scale 3: Family Responsibilities." There were no significant findings for Administrative Level, or for the Sex by Administrative Level interaction.

Percent of Items Done by Another: Marrieds:

Results of the 2×4 (Sex, Administrative Level) analysis of variance revealed significant main effects for Sex ($F = 37.81$; $df = 1, 183$; $p = 0.0$), Administrative Level ($F = 20.59$; $df = 3, 183$; $p = 0.0$), as well as the Sex by Administrative Level interaction ($F = 7.82$; $df = 3, 183$; $p = .0001$) for the Married subjects responding ($N = 191$). Unlike the Monastic subjects, Married Females significantly more often than Married Males chose someone else to perform family responsibility chores listed in "Family-Orientation Scale 3." The main effect for Administrative Level revealed that Chiefs were highest, then Deans, Non-Administrators, and Other-Administrators in choosing "ANOTHER PERSON" to complete chores. The score for Chiefs was significantly higher ($p = .01$) than every other Administrative Level. The Sex by Administrative Level interaction revealed significant differences consistent with the findings for the main effects. Female Chiefs, on significantly more items than Male Chiefs, chose "ANOTHER PERSON" to complete chores ($p = .01$). Sex differences were not found for any other administrative group.

Percent of Items Done by Another: Singles:

Results of the 2×4 (Sex, Administrative Level) analysis of variance revealed no significant differences for the Single subjects responding ($N = 77$).

With regard to those specific "Family Responsibilities" typically done by "ANOTHER PERSON," the variable "Fixing the Car" was first with 42.49% of subjects choosing response #4. The second variable was "Fixing the House" with 37.34% of subjects choosing response #4. The third variable was "Doing Yardwork" with 32.2% of subjects choosing

response #4. Table 1 presents a summary of the 24 variables that comprised "Family-Orientation Scale 3: Family Responsibilities" and the percent of subjects choosing response #4 for each variable.

Family-Scale 4: Family Plans. The mean scores for "Family Plans" were subjected to a $2 \times 2 \times 3$ (Sex, Administrative Level, Marital Status) analysis of variance. It should be noted that only two levels of administration were used: Deans and Other-Administrators. This was done because three empty cells were found where no responses were made by Monastic Chiefs, Monastic Non-Administrators and Single Non-Administrators. The decision to limit Administrative Level to two levels rather than four was made after analyses in which the grand mean was used in place of the missing values. This revealed findings similar to those when omitting the two dimensions of administrative levels in which the three empty cells occurred.

Results of this $2 \times 2 \times 3$ (Sex, Administrative Level, Marital Status) analysis of variance indicated a significant main effect for Marital Status ($F = 29.57$; $df = 2, 137$; $p = 0.0$) and a significant interaction between Sex and Marital Status ($F = 3.99$; $df = 2, 137$; $p = .0207$). The main effect for Marital Status revealed that Married subjects had the highest score on "Family Plans" of all Marital Statuses ($\bar{X} = 5.416$), followed by Singles ($\bar{X} = 3.907$) and Monastics ($\bar{X} = 2.699$). The scores of both Married and Single subjects were significantly higher than that of Monastic subjects ($p = .01$). Further, the scores of Married subjects were significantly higher than that of Single subjects ($p = .01$). Although the "Family Plans" score for Females in this study ($\bar{X} = 4.30$) was higher than that of Males ($\bar{X} = 3.715$), the difference was not significant ($p = .109$).

Post-hoc comparisons of the Sex by Marital Status interaction revealed a pattern of "Family Plans" for Females and Males similar to that of Marital Status alone. That is, Married Females and Single Females had significantly higher "Family Plans" scores than Monastic Females ($p = .01$). Married Males had a significantly higher score on "Family Plans" than both Monastic and Single Males ($p = .01$). Finally, the difference between the "Family Plans" scores of Single Females ($\bar{X} = 4.926$) and Single Males ($\bar{X} = 2.888$) was significant

TABLE 1

"FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALE 3"

SUMMARY OF FAMILY RESPONSIBILITY ITEMS

PERCENT OF RESPONSE "DONE BY ANOTHER PERSON" (4) FOR EACH ITEM

Family Responsibility	Percent of 4's	Actual Number of 4's	Total Responses (1,2,3,4)
Cleaning	25.31	102	403
Child Care	5.31	12	226
Drive Child	6.11	14	229
Make Meals	24.20	98	405
Food Shop	23.70	96	405
Do Dishes	24.44	99	405
Do Laundry	18.23	74	406
Do Yardwork	32.20	123	382
Fix House	37.34	146	391
Fix Car	42.49	167	393
Buy Furniture	19.39	76	392
Buy Household Items	16.41	65	396
Buy Clothes	3.14	13	414
Write Checks	17.62	74	420
Pay for Housing	23.84	98	411
Pay for Utilities	24.94	104	417
Pay for Food	19.90	83	417
Pay for Furniture	22.20	91	410
Pay for Clothes	7.82	33	422
Pay for Vacations	9.55	40	419
Pay for Savings	14.97	59	394
Pay for Luxuries	10.61	42	396
Pay for Miscellaneous	8.72	36	413
Care for Ill Dependent	19.90	78	392

($p = .01$).

A summary of all significant findings for "Family-Orientation" scales is presented in Table 2. It should be noted that on all four "Family-Scales" Marital Status was found to be significant as a differentiating factor. On one "Family Scale" significant main effects for Sex and Administrative Level were found, as well as a significant interaction between Sex and Administrative Level. Finally, one "Family Scale" revealed a significant interaction between Sex and Marital Status.

"Career-Orientation"

In answer to the research question regarding whether women and men differed in their orientations to career issues, results of the present study found that differences did occur on nine of the ten "Career-Orientation" scales. Results will be presented separately for each scale.

Career Scale 1: Importance of a Career. Results indicated significant main effects for all independent variables: Sex ($F = 8.63$; $df = 1, 483$; $p = .0035$), Administrative Level ($F = 10.79$; $df = 3, 483$; $p = .0000$), and Marital Status ($F = 3.93$; $df = 2, 483$; $p = .0203$). Significant interactions were also found for Sex and Administrative Level ($F = 2.94$; $df = 3, 483$; $p = .0330$), Sex and Marital Status ($F = 7.14$; $df = 2, 483$; $p = .0009$) and for Administrative Level and Marital Status ($F = 3.10$; $df = 6, 483$; $p = .0055$).

The main effect for Sex indicated that Females' score for "Importance of a Career" ($\bar{X} = 5.081$) was higher than Males' score ($\bar{X} = 4.798$) and this difference was significant ($p = .0035$). Subjects were also found to differ significantly in terms of their Administrative Level. Chiefs had the highest score on "Importance of a Career" ($\bar{X} = 5.321$), followed by Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.097$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.846$) and Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.493$). The score for Non-Administrators was significantly lower than scores for Chiefs, Deans, and Other-Administrators ($p = .01$). The score for Other-Administrators was also significantly lower than that for Chiefs ($p = .01$). Subjects also differed significantly in terms of their Marital Status. Married subjects had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.077$), followed by Singles ($\bar{X} = 4.921$) and Monastics ($\bar{X} = 4.819$). The score for Married subjects was significantly higher than that for Monastics ($p = .05$).

TABLE 2

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT "F" STATISTICS FOR "FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALES"

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	SEX	ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL	MARITAL STATUS	SEX BY ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL INTERACTION	SEX BY MARITAL STATUS INTERACTION	ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL BY MARITAL STATUS INTERACTION	SEX BY ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL BY MARITAL STATUS INTERACTION
FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALE 1	ns	ns	3.16 *	ns	ns	ns	ns
FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALE 2	ns	ns	10.70 ***	ns	ns	ns	ns
FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALE 3:							
(1,2,3 Rs) MARRIEDS ONLY	ns	ns	--	ns	--	--	--
(% of 4 Rs) MONASTICS ONLY	25.72 ***	ns	--	ns	--	--	--
(% of 4 Rs) MARRIEDS ONLY	37.81 ***	20.59 ***	--	7.82 ***	--	--	--
(% of 4 Rs) SINGLES ONLY	ns	ns	--	ns	--	--	--
FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALE 4	ns	ns	29.57 ***	ns	3.99 *	ns	ns

KEY:

ns = not significant
 * = $p < .05$
 ** = $p < .01$
 *** = $p < .001$

Three significant interactions were found for "Importance of a Career": (1) Sex by Administrative Level, (2) Sex by Marital Status, and (3) Administrative Level by Marital Status. The significant interaction between Sex and Administrative Level indicated that among Females, Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.310$), followed by Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.139$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.956$), and Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.918$). The score for Female Chiefs was significantly higher than that for Female Non-Administrators ($p = .05$). Among Males, a similar, but more extreme, pattern of results was found. Male Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.331$), followed by Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.055$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.736$), and Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.069$). The scores for Male Chiefs, Deans, and Other-Administrators were all significantly higher than that for Male Non-Administrators ($p = .01$). Male Chiefs also scored significantly higher than Male Other-Administrators ($p = .01$). Among Non-Administrators, Females' score ($\bar{X} = 4.918$) was significantly higher than Males' score ($\bar{X} = 4.069$) at the $p = .01$ level.

The significant interaction between Sex and Marital Status indicated that among Females, Single subjects had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.348$), followed by Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 5.016$), and Monastics ($\bar{X} = 4.879$). The score for Single Females was significantly higher than that of Monastic Females ($p = .01$) and Married Females ($p = .05$). Among Males, Married subjects had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.139$), followed by Monastics ($\bar{X} = 4.760$), and Singles ($\bar{X} = 4.494$). The score for Married Males was significantly higher

than that of Single Males ($p = .01$). Female Singles reported a mean score ($\bar{X} = 5.348$) that was significantly higher than that of Male Singles ($\bar{X} = 4.494$) at the $p = .01$ level.

Lastly, the significant interaction between Administrative Level and Marital Status indicated that among Chiefs, Single Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.673$), followed by Married Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 5.396$), and Monastic Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 4.893$). The scores for Single Chiefs and Married Chiefs were significantly higher than that for Monastic Chiefs ($p = .01$, $p = .05$ respectively). Among Deans, Married Deans had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.256$), followed by Single Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.251$), and Monastic Deans ($\bar{X} = 4.784$). The scores for Married Deans and Single Deans were significantly higher than that for Monastic Deans ($p = .05$). Among Non-Administrators, Monastic Non-Administrators had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 4.768$), followed by Married Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.741$) and Single Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 3.971$). The scores for Monastic Non-Administrators and Married Non-Administrators were both significantly higher than that for Single Non-Administrators ($p = .01$, $p = .05$ respectively). Within Marital Statuses, no significant differences were found among Monastic subjects as a function of their Administrative Level with respect to "Importance of a Career." However, it should be noted that subjects in this study who were Monastic Chiefs reported the highest score and Monastic Non-Administrators the lowest score for this scale. A significant difference was found within Married subjects on this scale. Married Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.396$), followed by Married Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.256$), Married Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.917$), and Married Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.741$). The scores for Married Chiefs and Married Deans were significantly higher than that for Married Non-Administrators ($p = .01$, $p = .05$ respectively). Married Chiefs were also significantly higher than Married Other-Administrators ($p = .05$). A significant difference was also found within Single subjects on this scale. Single Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.673$), followed by Single Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.251$), Single Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.789$), and Single Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 3.971$). The scores for Single Chiefs, Single Deans, and Single Other-Administrators were all significantly higher than that for Single Non-Administrators ($p = .01$). Single Chiefs scored significantly higher than Single Other-Administrators ($p = .01$).

Career-Scale 2: Positive Reasons for Making a Job Change. Results indicated significant main effects for Sex ($F = 4.17$; $df = 1, 385$; $p = .0419$) and Marital Status ($F = 11.26$; $df = 2, 385$; $p = .0000$). A significant interaction was also found between Sex and Marital Status ($F = 3.47$; $df = 2, 385$; $p = .0321$).

The main effect for Sex indicated that Females' score for "Positive Reasons for Making a Job Change" ($\bar{X} = 3.853$) was significantly higher than Males' score ($\bar{X} = 3.388$) at the $p = .04$ level. The main effect for Marital Status indicated that Single subjects had the highest score on this scale ($\bar{X} = 3.952$), followed by Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 3.927$), and Monastics ($\bar{X} = 2.984$). The scores for Single and Married subjects were both significantly higher than that for Monastics ($p = .01$).

The significant interaction between Sex and Marital Status indicated that among Females, Single Females had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 4.607$), followed by Married Females ($\bar{X} = 3.794$), and Monastic Females ($\bar{X} = 3.158$). The score for Single Females was significantly higher than that for Married Females ($p = .05$) and for Female Monastics ($p = .01$). Among Males, Married Males had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 4.059$), followed by Single Males ($\bar{X} = 3.296$), and Monastic Males ($\bar{X} = 2.809$). The score for Married Males was significantly higher than that for Monastic Males ($p = .01$). Among Single subjects, Female Singles had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 4.607$) compared to Male Singles ($\bar{X} = 3.296$). The difference between these two scores was significant ($p = .01$). A similar, but non-significant, pattern was found in the Monastic group: Female Monastics scored higher ($\bar{X} = 3.158$) than Male Monastics ($\bar{X} = 2.809$). Only in the Married group was this pattern reversed, although again, it was not significant (Males: $\bar{X} = 4.059$; Females: $\bar{X} = 3.794$).

Career-Scale 3: Negative Reasons for Making a Job Change. The mean scores for Career-Scale 3 were subjected to a $2 \times 4 \times 2$ (Sex, Administrative Level, Marital Status) analysis of variance. It should be noted that only two levels of Marital Status were used - Monastic and Married. The reason for the omission of the Single Marital Status in this analysis was due to the presence of an empty cell for the group "Single Non-

Administrators." This decision was made after an analysis using the grand mean in place of the missing group mean revealed findings similar to those occurring when the "Single" dimension of Marital Status was omitted.

Results of this $2 \times 4 \times 2$ (Sex, Administrative Level, Marital Status) analysis of variance indicated a significant main effect for Marital Status ($F = 18.00$; $df = 1, 239$; $p = 0.0$) and a significant interaction between Sex and Marital Status ($F = 7.15$; $df = 1, 239$; $p = .008$). The main effect for Marital Status revealed that subjects differed significantly with Marrieds reporting the higher score ($\bar{X} = 4.160$) compared with Monastics ($\bar{X} = 3.364$), a difference which was significant ($p = .000$).

A significant Sex by Marital Status interaction indicated that among Females, Married Females had the higher score ($\bar{X} = 4.467$) compared with Monastic Females ($\bar{X} = 3.168$), a difference which was significant ($p = .01$). Among Males, no significant differences were found, although Married Males' scores ($\bar{X} = 3.854$) were higher than Monastic Males' scores ($\bar{X} = 3.559$) in this study. Among Married subjects, Female Marrieds had the higher score ($\bar{X} = 4.467$) compared with Male Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 3.854$), a difference that was significant ($p = .01$). Among Monastic subjects, this pattern was reversed. Male Monastics had the higher score ($\bar{X} = 3.559$) compared with Female Monastics ($\bar{X} = 3.168$), although this difference was not significant.

Career Scale 4: Limits on Job Mobility. Results indicated significant main effects were found for Sex ($F = 5.85$; $df = 1, 300$; $p = .0162$) and Marital Status ($F = 12.27$; $df = 2, 300$; $p = .0000$), as well as a significant interaction between Administrative Level and Marital Status ($F = 2.56$; $df = 6, 300$; $p = .0197$).

The main effect for Sex indicated that Females' score ($\bar{X} = 2.508$) for "Limits on Job Mobility" was significantly higher than Males' score ($\bar{X} = 2.155$), at the $p = .02$ level. The main effect for Marital Status indicated that Marrieds had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 2.719$), followed by Monastics ($\bar{X} = 2.144$) and Singles ($\bar{X} = 2.132$). The score

for Married subjects was significantly higher than both Monastics and Singles scores ($p = .01$).

A significant interaction between Administrative Level and Marital Status indicated that among Chiefs, Married Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 2.266$), followed by Monastic Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 2.039$), and Single Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 1.660$). The difference between scores for Married Chiefs and Single Chiefs was significant ($p = .05$). Among Deans, Married Deans also had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 2.719$), followed by Monastic Deans ($\bar{X} = 2.381$) and Single Deans ($\bar{X} = 2.028$). Again, the difference between Married Deans and Single Deans was significant ($p = .01$). Among Other-Administrators, the Married Other-Administrators again had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 2.998$), but Single Other-Administrators were next ($\bar{X} = 2.442$), followed by Monastic Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 1.840$). Once again, the difference between Married Other-Administrators and Single Other-Administrators was significant ($p = .05$). In addition, the scores of both Married and Single Other-Administrators were significantly higher than that of Monastic Other-Administrators ($p = .01$). Among the Non-Administrative group no significant differences were found. Within the Married group, Other-Administrators had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 2.998$), followed by Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 2.893$), Deans ($\bar{X} = 2.719$), and Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 2.266$). The scores of Married Other-Administrators and Married Non-Administrators were both significantly higher than that of Married Chiefs ($p = .01$, $p = .05$ respectively). Although no other significant differences were found, among Single subjects in this study the highest score was found for Other-Administrators and Non-Administrators; the lowest scores were found for Chiefs and Deans. This pattern was reversed somewhat for the Monastic group, in which Deans and Non-Administrators had the highest scores, and Other-Administrators and Chiefs had the lowest scores.

Career-Scale 5: Positive Consequences of a Career. Results indicated significant main effects were found for Sex ($F = 4.58$; $df = 1, 363$; $p = .0331$) and Marital Status ($F = 5.57$; $df = 2, 363$; $p = .0041$). Three significant interactions were also found: Sex and Administrative Level ($F = 6.05$; $df = 3, 363$; $p = .0005$), Sex and Marital

Status ($F = 6.28$; $df = 2, 363$; $p = .0021$) and a three-way interaction between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status ($F = 2.15$; $df = 6, 363$; $p = .0472$).

The main effect for Sex indicated that Females' score ($\bar{X} = 5.832$) for "Positive Consequences of a Career" was significantly higher than Males' score ($\bar{X} = 5.493$), a difference which was significant at the $p = .0331$ level. The main effect for Marital Status indicated that Monastic subjects had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 5.936$), followed by Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 5.818$) and Singles ($\bar{X} = 5.233$). The scores of both the Monastic and Married subjects were significantly higher than that of the Single subjects ($p = .01$).

The Sex by Administrative Level interaction indicated that among Males, Male Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 6.254$), followed by Male Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.663$), Male Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 5.493$), and Male Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.561$). The scores of the Male Chiefs, Deans, and Other-Administrators were all significantly higher than that of Male Non-Administrators ($p = .01$ level for all differences). Further, the score of Male Chiefs was significantly higher than that of Male Other-Administrators ($p = .05$). Among Females, no significant differences among Administrative Levels were found, although it should be noted that the highest Female score in this study was reported by the Female Non-Administrative group ($\bar{X} = 6.072$) and the lowest Female score was reported by the Female Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 5.580$), results exactly opposite to those for Males. The Sex by Administrative Level interaction also revealed between-sex differences in both the Chiefs and Non-Administrative groups. The score for Male Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 6.254$) was significantly higher than that of Female Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 5.580$) at the $p = .01$ level. The score for Female Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 6.072$) was significantly higher than that of Male Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.561$) at the $p = .01$ level.

A significant interaction between Sex and Marital Status indicated that among Males, Monastic Males had the highest score for "Positive Consequences of a Career" ($\bar{X} = 5.989$), followed by Married Males ($\bar{X} = 5.879$), and Single Males ($\bar{X} = 4.609$). The scores of Monastic and Married Males were both significantly higher than that of Single Males

($p = .01$). Among Females, no significant differences among Marital Statuses were found, although it should be noted that the highest Female score reported on this scale was by Singles ($\bar{X} = 5.856$), exactly the reverse of Males for whom the Single group had the lowest score ($\bar{X} = 4.609$). This between-sex difference within the Single group was significant, with Female Singles scoring higher than Male Singles ($p = .01$).

A significant three-way interaction was found between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status. Post-hoc analyses revealed three significant within-sex differences and two significant between-sex differences. Within-sex differences included: (1) Among Males within the Other-Administrative group, Monastics had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 6.063$), followed closely by Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 6.000$), then Singles ($\bar{X} = 4.417$). The scores of the Monastics and Marrieds were both significantly higher than that of Singles ($p = .01$); (2) Among Males within the Non-Administrative group, a similar pattern was found. Monastics had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 6.000$), followed by Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 5.433$), then Singles ($\bar{X} = 2.250$). The scores of the Monastics and Marrieds were both significantly higher than that of Singles ($p = .01$); and (3) Among Males within the Single group, Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 6.333$), followed by Deans ($\bar{X} = 5.438$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 4.417$), and Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 2.250$). The scores of the Chiefs and Deans were both significantly higher than that of the Non-Administrative group ($p = .01$). No significant within-sex differences were found among Females. Between-sex differences included: (1) Among the Married Chief Administrative group, Males scored higher ($\bar{X} = 6.200$) than Females ($\bar{X} = 5.286$), a difference which was significant ($p = .05$); and (2) Among the Single Non-Administrative group, Females scored higher ($\bar{X} = 6.429$) than Males ($\bar{X} = 2.250$), a difference which was significant ($p = .01$).

Career-Scale 6: Negative Consequences of a Career. This was the only scale within the major dependent variables in which no significant differences were found. However, four points should be noted with regard to the responses to this scale: (1) The grand mean was fairly low ($\bar{X}_G = 2.152$) within a seven-point range; (2) With regard to Sex differences, in this study Females' scores ($\bar{X} = 2.244$) were higher than Males' ($\bar{X} = 2.060$); (3) With regard to Administrative Level differences, in this study Non-Administrators' scores were highest ($\bar{X} = 2.309$), followed by Deans ($\bar{X} = 2.119$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 2.096$), and Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 2.085$) who had the lowest score; and (4) With regard to Marital Status differences, in this study Marrieds were highest ($\bar{X} = 2.316$), followed by Singles ($\bar{X} = 2.202$) and Monastics ($\bar{X} = 1.939$) with the lowest score.

Career-Scale 7: Professional Activities. Results indicated significant main effects were found for Administrative Level ($F = 6.05$; $df = 3, 482$; $p = .0005$) and for Marital Status ($F = 7.23$; $df = 2, 482$; $p = .0008$), as well as a significant three-way interaction between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status ($F = 2.21$; $df = 6, 482$; $p = .0408$).

The main effect for Administrative Level indicated that Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 1.142$), followed in order by Deans ($\bar{X} = .8957$), Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = .8182$), and Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = .6804$). The score for Chiefs was significantly higher than both Other-Administrators and Non-Administrators ($p = .01$). The main effect for Marital Status indicated that Marrieds were highest ($\bar{X} = 1.036$), followed by Singles ($\bar{X} = .8830$), and Monastics ($\bar{X} = .7278$). The score for Marrieds was significantly higher than that for Monastics ($p = .01$).

A significant three-way interaction was found between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status. Post-hoc analyses revealed three significant within-sex differences and one significant between-sex difference. Within-sex differences included: (1) Among Females within the Chief administrative group, Singles had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 1.370$), followed by Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 1.017$) and Monastics ($\bar{X} = .7608$). The score for Singles was significantly higher than that for Monastics ($p = .05$);

(2) Among Males within the Chief administrative group, Marrieds had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 1.980$), followed by Monastics ($\bar{X} = .9605$), and Singles ($\bar{X} = .7633$). The score for Marrieds was significantly higher than that for Monastics ($p = .05$) and for Singles ($p = .01$); and (3) Among Males within the Married group, Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 1.98$), followed by Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 1.122$), Deans ($\bar{X} = .9473$), and Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = .7107$). The score for Chiefs was significantly higher than that for all other administrative groups ($p = .01$). The between-sex difference occurred within the Married Chief administrative group, where Males scored higher ($\bar{X} = 1.980$) than Females ($\bar{X} = 1.017$), a difference which was significant ($p = .01$).

Career-Scale 8: Continuity of Work History. Results indicated a significant main effect for Marital Status ($F = 3.41$; $df = 2, 474$; $p = .0339$). Married subjects were found to have the lowest score ($\bar{X} = 49.43$), followed by Monastics ($\bar{X} = 50.74$), and Singles ($\bar{X} = 51.12$). The score for Marrieds was significantly lower than that for Singles ($p = .05$). No other significant differences or interactions were found for this scale.

Career-Scale 9: Activity and Variety of Work Experiences. Results indicated significant main effects were found for Sex ($F = 15.49$; $df = 1, 437$; $p = .0001$) and Administrative Level ($F = 7.48$; $df = 3, 437$; $p = .0001$), as well as a significant interaction between Sex and Administrative Level ($F = 3.87$; $df = 3, 437$; $p = .0094$).

The main effect for Sex revealed that Females' score ($\bar{X} = 51.54$) was significantly higher than that for Males ($\bar{X} = 47.70$) at the $p = .0001$ level. The main effect for Administrative Level revealed that Chiefs were highest ($\bar{X} = 53.36$), followed in order by Deans ($\bar{X} = 50.36$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 48.34$), and Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 46.43$). The score for Chiefs was significantly higher than that for Deans ($p = .05$), Other-Administrators ($p = .01$) and Non-Administrators ($p = .01$). Further, the score for Deans was significantly higher than that for Non-Administrators ($p = .01$).

A significant interaction between Sex and Administrative Level was found. Post-hoc comparisons revealed a pattern of responses among Males similar to that for Administrative Level in general. Chiefs had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 52.71$), followed by Deans ($\bar{X} = 50.15$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 46.46$), and Non-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 41.50$). The score for Male Chiefs was significantly higher than that for Male Other-Administrators and Male Non-Administrators ($p = .01$). Further, the score for Male Deans was significantly higher than that for Male Other-Administrators ($p = .05$) and for Male Non-Administrators ($p = .01$). Also, the score for Male Other-Administrators was significantly higher than that for Male Non-Administrators ($p = .05$). Among Females, no significant differences were found. However, it should be noted that the responses of Females to this scale followed a dissimilar pattern to that of Males and to Administrative Level in general. Female Chiefs were still highest ($\bar{X} = 54.00$), but Female Non-Administrators were next ($\bar{X} = 51.36$), followed by Female Deans ($\bar{X} = 50.57$), and Female Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 50.23$). This interaction also revealed two significant between-sex differences. Within the Other-Administrator group, Females' score was higher ($\bar{X} = 50.23$) than Males' ($\bar{X} = 46.46$), a difference that was significant ($p = .01$). Also, within the Non-Administrative group, Females' score was higher ($\bar{X} = 51.36$) than Males' ($\bar{X} = 41.50$), a difference that was significant ($p = .01$).

Career-Scale 10: Amount of Job Activity. Results indicated significant main effects were found for Administrative Level ($F = 10.71$; $df = 3, 491$; $p = .0000$) and Marital Status ($F = 8.96$; $df = 2, 491$; $p = .0002$). Significant interactions were found for Sex and Marital Status ($F = 3.26$; $df = 2, 491$; $p = .0392$) and for the three-way interaction of Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status ($F = 2.18$; $df = 6, 491$; $p = .0432$).

The main effect for Administrative Level revealed that Non-Administrators had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 54.27$), followed by Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 51.25$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 48.55$), and Deans ($\bar{X} = 47.49$). The score for Non-Administrators was significantly higher than that for Chiefs ($p = .05$), Deans ($p = .01$), and Other-Administrators ($p = .01$).

The main effect for Marital Status revealed that Monastics had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 52.27$), followed by Singles ($\bar{X} = 50.15$), and Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 48.75$). The score for Monastics was significantly higher than that for Marrieds ($p = .01$) and for Singles ($p = .05$).

A significant interaction between Sex and Marital Status was found. Post-hoc analyses revealed two significant differences: (1) Among Females, Female Monastics had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 52.89$), followed by Female Singles ($\bar{X} = 48.10$), and Female Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 47.83$). The score for Female Monastics was significantly higher than that for Female Singles ($p = .01$) and for Female Marrieds ($p = .01$), (2) Among Singles, Male Singles' score was significantly higher ($\bar{X} = 52.19$) than Female Singles ($\bar{X} = 48.10$) at the $p = .01$ level.

A significant three-way interaction between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status was also found. Post-hoc analyses revealed five within-sex differences and one between-sex difference. Within-sex differences included: (1) Among Females within the Non-Administrative group, Monastics had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 56.83$), followed by Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 48.81$) and Singles ($\bar{X} = 48.24$). The score for Monastics was significantly higher than that for Marrieds ($p = .05$) and for Singles ($p = .05$); (2) Among Females within the Monastic group, Non-Administrators had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 56.83$), followed by Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 53.47$), Deans, ($\bar{X} = 50.77$) and Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 50.47$). The score for Non-Administrators was significantly higher than that for Deans ($p = .05$) and for Other-Administrators ($p = .01$); (3) Among Males within the Non-Administrative group, Singles had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 65.11$), followed by Monastics ($\bar{X} = 55.71$), and Marrieds ($\bar{X} = 50.94$). The score for Singles was significantly higher than that for Marrieds ($p = .01$); (4) Among Males within the Monastic group, Non-Administrators had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 55.71$), followed by Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 51.82$), Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 50.46$), and Deans ($\bar{X} = 48.62$). The score for Non-Administrators was significantly higher than that for Deans ($p = .05$); (5) Among Males within the Single group, Non-Administrators again had

the highest score ($\bar{X} = 65.11$), followed by Chiefs ($\bar{X} = 53.44$), Other-Administrators ($\bar{X} = 46.09$), and Deans ($\bar{X} = 44.12$). The score for Non-Administrators was significantly higher than that for Deans ($p = .01$) and Other-Administrators ($p = .01$). One between-sex difference found to be significant occurred within the Single Non-Administrative group. The score for Males ($\bar{X} = 65.11$) was significantly higher than that for Females ($\bar{X} = 48.24$) at the $p = .01$ level.

A summary of all significant findings for the ten "Career-Orientation" scales is presented in Table 3. It should be noted that on eight of ten "Career-Orientation" scales, Marital Status was found to be a significant differentiating factor. On five of ten "Career" scales, Sex was a significant factor. On four of ten "Career" scales, Administrative Level was a significant factor. The Sex by Administrative Level interaction was significant on three of ten "Career" scales. The Sex by Marital Status interaction was significant on five of ten "Career" scales. The Administrative Level by Marital Status interaction was significant on two of ten "Career" scales. Lastly, a three-way interaction between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status occurred on three of ten "Career" scales. On only one scale in this domain were no significant differences found (Career Scale 6: Negative Consequences of a Career).

Career-Related Demographic Factors

Significant salary differences were found for Sex. The Males in this study were paid a significantly higher average salary than Females. However, salary differences were found for Administrative Level and Marital Status as well. As might be expected, Chiefs were paid the most, then Deans, Other-Administrators, with Non-Administrators paid the least. This finding points to the financial value of an administrative career, as well as years of experience. Married subjects were paid the most and Monastics were paid the least. It should be noted that a number of Monastics reported donating their salary to their college and/or their religious community.

Males reported working most often at the most prestigious colleges (University Level), whereas Females were more often working at colleges

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT "F" STATISTICS FOR "CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALES"

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	SEX	ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL	MARITAL STATUS	SEX BY ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL INTERACTION	SEX BY MARITAL STATUS INTERACTION	ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL BY MARITAL STATUS INTERACTION	SEX BY ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL BY MARITAL STATUS INTERACTION
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 1	0.63 **	10.79 ***	3.93 *	2.94 *	7.14 ***	3.10 **	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 2	4.17 *	ns	11.26 ***	ns	3.47 *	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 3: (NUNASTICS, MARRIEDS ONLY)	ns	ns	18.00 ***	ns	7.15 **	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 4	5.85 *	ns	12.27 ***	ns	ns	2.56 *	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 5	4.58 *	ns	5.57 **	6.05 ***	6.28 **	ns	2.15 *
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 6	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 7	ns	6.05 ***	7.23 ***	ns	ns	ns	2.21 *
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 8	ns	ns	3.41 *	ns	ns	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 9	15.49 ***	7.48 ***	ns	3.87 **	ns	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 10	ns	10.71 ***	8.96 ***	ns	3.26 *	ns	2.18 *

KEY:

ns = not significant
 * $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$
 *** $p < .001$

granting the Bachelor's degree. Most of the Chiefs headed lower status colleges (those granting the Associate's and Bachelor's degrees), where most of the Monastics were employed (Bachelor's degree-granting colleges). Size of the institution where now employed varied as a function of Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status, although it should be pointed out that most subjects in this study were to be found at very small colleges (below 2,000 students). Most of the subjects in this study were employed in institutions under private religious control, as might be expected by large numbers of Monastic subjects in the sampling design. A majority of subjects (79%) also worked at coeducational rather than single-sex institutions.

In summary, the demographic characteristics of subjects in this study suggest that they are both similar and dissimilar when compared with subjects studied previously. Like other studies, subjects in the present research were predominantly Caucasian, first-born, had mothers who were homemakers, reported having a role model and mentor, as well as experiencing many conflicts and crises in the past year (Hennig and Jardim, 1977; Gupta, 1981). In addition, subjects in the present study differed significantly with respect to Sex for the variable "Salary," a finding which lends support to the continuing disparity between men and women, even in professional positions. The results of demographic characteristics for subjects in the present study indicated that, compared to previous findings, they were more likely to be Monastic, Catholic, children of native-born Americans, had earlier planned to remain single, and were more often employed in small, coeducational institutions under religious control. A summary of significant findings for Sex, Administrative Level, and Marital Status for demographic characteristics is presented in Table 4.

Comparison of Monastic Subjects

A unique feature of this research was the inclusion of Roman Catholic nuns and priests who made up the "Monastic" Marital Status group. The 222 Monastics made up 39.6% of the total sample of 561 subjects. However, unlike Married and Single subjects, a substantial number of Monastic subjects chose NOT to answer questions dealing

TABLE 4
SUMMARY OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES
SIGNIFICANT MAIN EFFECTS

	DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES	SEX	ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL	MARITAL STATUS
PERSONAL FACTORS	1. AGE	ns	*	*
	2. RACE/ETHNICITY	ns	ns	ns
	3. RELIGION	*	ns	*
	4. BIRTH ORDER	ns	ns	*
PARENTAL FACTORS	5. FATHER'S BIRTHPLACE	ns	ns	*
	6. MOTHER'S BIRTHPLACE	ns	ns	*
	7. FATHER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	ns	ns	*
	8. MOTHER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	ns	ns	*
	9. FATHER'S OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL	ns	*	ns
	10. MOTHER'S OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL	ns	ns	ns
	11. FAMILY'S MOBILITY	ns	ns	*
	12. REASONS FOR EDUCATION: PROVIDE FOR SELF	ns	ns	*
	13. REASONS FOR EDUCATION: PROVIDE FOR OTHERS	*	ns	*
	14. REASONS FOR EDUCATION: TEMPORARY UNTIL MARRIAGE	*	ns	ns
OWN FAMILY FACTORS	15. REASONS FOR EDUCATION: SUPPLEMENT TO SPOUSE'S \$	*	*	ns
	16. REASONS FOR EDUCATION: SUBSTITUTE TO SPOUSE'S \$	*	*	ns
	17. REASONS FOR EDUCATION: AS AN END IN ITSELF	*	ns	*
	18. NUMBER OF YEARS MARRIED	*	*	ns
	19. PARTNER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	*	ns	ns
	20. IN A DUAL-JOB FAMILY	*	ns	ns
	21. NUMBER OF CHILDREN	*	ns	*
	22. EARLIER PLANS: TO REMAIN SINGLE	*	ns	*
	23. EARLIER PLANS: TO MARRY BUT HAVE NO CHILDREN	*	ns	*
	24. EARLIER PLANS: TO MARRY AND HAVE CHILDREN	*	ns	*
CAREER-RELATED FACTORS	25. EARLIER PLANS: TO CARE FOR ELDERLY PARENTS	*	ns	ns
	26. EXTENT TO WHICH EARLIER PLANS HAVE BEEN REALIZED	*	ns	*
	27. SALARY	*	*	*
	28. LEVEL OF INSTITUTION WHERE NOW EMPLOYED	*	*	*
	29. SIZE OF INSTITUTION WHERE NOW EMPLOYED	*	*	*
	30. CONTROL OF INSTITUTION WHERE NOW EMPLOYED	ns	*	*
	31. SEX OF STUDENT BODY WHERE NOW EMPLOYED	*	*	*
SELF-RELATED FACTORS	32. PERSONAL BANK ACCOUNT	ns	ns	*
	33. HAD A ROLE MODEL	*	ns	ns
	34. HAD A MENTOR	*	ns	ns
	35. CONFLICT EXPERIENCED	ns	ns	*
	36. CRISES EXPERIENCED	*	ns	ns
	37. AMOUNT OF LIFE SATISFACTION	ns	ns	*
TOTAL TIMES EACH FACTOR WAS SIGNIFICANT (*)		22	10	24
(PERCENT) OF 37 VARIABLES EACH FACTOR WAS SIGNIFICANT		(59%)	(27%)	(65%)
ns = not significant				

with "Family-Orientation" (Family-Scales 1 - 4). Since this non-responsiveness of Monastic subjects was not random, it was important to know how Monastics who chose not to answer differed from Monastics who chose to answer.

A new variable "MONANSWER" was created, with two levels: (1) Monastics who answered, and (2) Monastics who did not answer. Monastic subjects were eligible for level 1 if they answered at least 8 of the 32 items contained in the four "Family-Orientation Scales." Eight responses would have given them a minimum of obtaining three Family-Scale scores (Scales 1, 2, and 4).

These two groups of Monastic subjects were then compared on the following variables and scales: (1) Age, (2) Self-Orientation Scale, (3) Career-Scales 1 - 10, (4) Masculine, Feminine, and Neutral Self-Descriptors, (5) Success Attributions (Hard Work, Ability, Luck, and Ease of Task). The mean score on each of these variables and scales was calculated for these two groups of Monastics and subjected to a series of "Studentized t-tests" (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner and Bent, 1975).

Results of this series of comparisons indicated that the two groups of Monastic subjects were comparable on all but four scales. These four areas of differences included: (1) "Self-Orientation Scale" (2) "Career-Scale 9: Activity and Variety of Work Experiences" (3) Success Attributions for Ability, and (4) Success Attributions for Ease of Task. Compared to Monastics who did not answer, Monastics who did answer "Family-Orientation Scales" had significantly higher "Self-Orientation" scores ($p = .046$), a significantly greater amount of "Activity and Variety of Work Experiences" ($p = .000$), were more likely to attribute their success to their "Ability" ($p = .045$), and to their "Ease of Task" ($p = .045$). Table 5 presents these results.

Summary

A summary of all significant and non-significant main effects and interactions for each of the dependent variables and scales employed in this study is presented in Table 6.

TABLE 5

"COMPARISON OF MONASTIC SUBJECTS"
 MEAN SCALE SCORES ON ALL DEPENDENT VARIABLES (EXCEPT FAMILY SCALES)
 OF MONASTICS WHO ANSWERED FAMILY SCALES
 COMPARED TO MONASTICS WHO DID NOT ANSWER FAMILY SCALES

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	MONASTICS WHO DID <u>NOT</u> ANSWER			MONASTICS WHO DID ANSWER			STATISTICAL ANALYSES
	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	
AGE	52.95	10.49	93	50.60	9.40	125	1.73(216)
SELF-SCALE	4.58	.83	83	4.82	.81	124	-2.01(205)*
CAREER-SCALE 1	4.72	.85	87	4.92	.84	126	-1.73(211)
CAREER-SCALE 2	2.89	1.72	60	3.12	1.61	102	-.86(160)
CAREER-SCALE 3	3.12	1.15	35	3.46	1.19	66	-1.38(99)
CAREER-SCALE 4	2.00	.88	28	2.19	.82	77	-1.03(103)
CAREER-SCALE 5	6.02	1.35	22	5.90	1.02	106	.50(126)
CAREER-SCALE 6	1.67	1.04	18	2.03	1.27	96	-1.15(112)
CAREER-SCALE 7	.69	.63	88	.71	.67	127	-.24(213)
CAREER-SCALE 8	49.87	5.39	87	51.03	5.53	126	-1.52(211)
CAREER-SCALE 9	46.67	6.29	74	50.83	7.63	122	-3.95(194)***
CAREER-SCALE 10	52.78	8.75	94	51.58	8.29	128	1.05(220)
MASCULINE SD	3.61	1.01	82	3.81	.93	124	-1.50(204)
FEMININE SD	5.46	.60	84	5.60	.60	126	-1.66(208)
NEUTRAL SD	5.74	.66	84	5.76	.66	126	-.27(208)
HARD WORK	51.48	19.56	87	47.15	15.86	126	1.71(159)
ABILITY	34.82	15.82	87	39.18	15.27	126	-2.02(211)*
LUCK	9.72	11.78	87	8.56	9.30	125	.77(156)
EASE OF TASK	3.25	5.41	87	5.09	7.85	126	-2.02(211)*

KEY:

- * = $p < .05$
 ** = $p < .01$
 *** = $p < .001$

TABLE 6

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT "F" STATISTICS FOR ALL DEPENDENT VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	SEX	ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL	MARITAL STATUS	SEX BY ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL INTERACTION	SEX BY MARITAL STATUS INTERACTION	ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL BY MARITAL STATUS INTERACTION	SEX BY ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL BY MARITAL STATUS INTERACTION
SELF-ORIENTATION SCALE	4.06 *	ns	ns	4.75 **	ns	2.50 *	ns
FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALE 1	ns	ns	3.16 *	ns	ns	ns	ns
FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALE 2	ns	ns	10.70 ***	ns	ns	ns	ns
FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALE 3:							
(1,2,3 Rs) MARRIEDS ONLY	ns	ns	--	ns	--	--	--
(3 of 4 Rs) MONASTICS ONLY	25.72 ***	ns	--	ns	--	--	--
(3 of 4 Rs) MARRIEDS ONLY	37.81 ***	20.59 ***	--	7.82 ***	--	--	--
(3 of 4 Rs) SINGLES ONLY	ns	ns	--	ns	--	--	--
FAMILY-ORIENTATION SCALE 4	ns	ns	29.57 ***	ns	3.99 *	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 1	8.63 **	10.79 ***	3.93 *	2.94 *	7.44 ***	3.10 **	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 2	4.17 *	ns	11.26 ***	ns	3.47 *	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 3:							
(MONASTICS, MARRIEDS ONLY)	ns	ns	18.00 ***	ns	7.15 **	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 4	5.85 *	ns	12.27 ***	ns	ns	2.56 *	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 5	4.58 *	ns	5.57 **	6.05 ***	6.28 **	ns	2.15 *
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 6	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 7	ns	6.05 ***	7.23 ***	ns	ns	ns	2.21 *
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 8	ns	ns	3.41 *	ns	ns	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 9	15.49 ***	7.48 ***	ns	3.87 **	ns	ns	ns
CAREER-ORIENTATION SCALE 10	ns	10.71 ***	8.96 ***	ns	5.26 *	ns	2.18 *

KEY:

ns	=	not significant
*	=	p < .05
**	=	p < .01
***	=	p < .001

Discussion and Implications

"Self-Orientation"

Over all subjects, the "Self-Orientation" scale scores ranged on a seven-point scale between approximately four and five, middle to slightly above middle levels of scale items: travel, hobbies, personal development, support systems, and willingness to move for another job offer. Within this narrow range, Females were more "Self-Oriented" than Males ($p = .04$). Although Females' scores did not vary significantly from one another and Males' scores did, the Administrative Levels followed a disordinal pattern when compared to Males' ordinal pattern.

These results are contrary to predictions and to stereotypes of Females as "Other-Centered" compared to Males as "Self-Centered." It is possible that, in general, while Males at lower Administrative Levels may be more singular in their pursuit of career goals, Females in higher education administration are more diverse and have more personal interests and a more extensive support system. Among Males, the Non-Administrative or Faculty group had the lowest "Self-Orientation" score, significantly lower than all other Males and Females as well. It appears that this group of Males in particular reported having the least amount of time available for pursuits of other interests. However, this was not the case for Female Non-Administrative Faculty who had the highest "Self-Orientation" score of all Females and almost all Males, except for Male Chiefs. This Non-Administrative group of Females, compared to Male academics, apparently has more time and energy available to pursue interests outside of their careers.

Perhaps it is the case that Male Non-Administrators are more concerned and involved with their careers because they have been socialized to do so until they reach the top administrative levels. It may also be that Female Non-Administrators are less invested in their careers, to the exclusion of everything else, as Males seem to be. All Female and Male Chiefs and Deans had high "Self-Orientation" scores and appear to be more in control of their own schedules and priorities which allow them time and energy to pursue outside "Self-Oriented" interests. This appears not to be the case for Males at the two lower Administrative Levels. At the levels of Other-Administrator and Non-Administrator, Females were significantly more "Self-Oriented" than Males.

The widest disparity in "Self-Orientation" scores was reported within the Single Marital Status group. Single Chiefs and Deans reported comparable scores, which were both significantly higher than Single Non-Administrators. Perhaps the higher Administrative Levels provide Single subjects with control over their own schedules and allow for more delegation of responsibilities, as well as a high measure of success. All of these factors would allow Single Chiefs and Deans the time and energy to pursue "Self-Oriented" interests. This would not be the case for Single Non-Administrators who might still be trying to succeed or who might be more invested in their jobs.

Within Administrative Levels, the group of Other-Administrators reported the least variability in "Self-Orientation" scores as a function of Marital Status. The Chiefs, Deans, and Non-Administrative groups reported greater variability. Within the Non-Administrative group, Sex appears to affect "Self-Orientation" in different directions. Perhaps when Females are in the lowest Administrative Levels, they have more free time and energy than comparable Males because the job isn't as important to them as it is to Males. However, when Females reach the top two Administrative Levels, they are lower in "Self-Orientation" scores than comparable Males. Perhaps this is because they need to devote more time to their careers than Males, not just to maintain it, but to achieve it in the first place, a conclusion drawn by Hennig and Jardim (1977) in their sample of business leaders.

Self-Related Demographic Factors

With regard to self-related demographic factors, the following results should be noted: (1) Married subjects experienced significantly more conflict than subjects who were Single or Monastic ($p = .002$), (2) Females experienced significantly more crises than Males ($p = .0001$), and (3) Monastics were significantly higher on Life Satisfaction than either Singles or Marrieds ($p = .016$). These findings point to the impact of Marital Status, in addition to Sex, on self-related factors.

"Family-Orientation"

Marital status proved to be the most significant factor differentiating subjects on each of the four "Family-Orientation" scales. Using Marital Status to characterize subjects in general, Monastics were highest on "Positive Effects of Family," lowest on "Negative Effects of Family,"

had the least amount of "Family Responsibilities" (Monastics chose "Another's Responsibility" response four most often), and had the least flexible "Family Plans." Marrieds were in the middle on "Positive Effects of Family," and highest on "Negative Effects of Family." Married Female Chiefs were significantly higher than Married Male Chiefs and higher than all other Married Female Administrators on amount of "Family Responsibilities" done by another person. Married subjects of both sexes were most flexible on "Family Plans." Singles were lowest on "Positive Effects of Family," in the middle on "Negative Effects of Family," showed no significant differences on "Family Responsibilities," and had moderate flexibility on "Family Plans," where Single Females were significantly higher than Single Males. Results for the four "Family-Orientation" scales will be discussed separately, according to subjects' Marital Status.

Monastics. While unexpected findings occurred for Monastic subjects with the most positive and least negative "Effects of Family," it was expected that Monastic Males, more than Monastic Females, would have other people available to complete chores listed in "Family Responsibilities." In fact, Monastics of both sexes, more than Marrieds or Singles, chose "Another's Responsibility" when asked who actually completed household chores. These findings lead to the conclusion that "Family" for Monastic subjects apparently operates in a more supportive and less constricting manner than it may for subjects who were Married and Single. While all subjects were asked to consider whomever they wished as part of their "Family" (see "Higher Education Career Questionnaire," page 6, Appendix D of Mark, 1982), this was done

to encourage responses especially from Monastics, as well as Singles, who were in the traditional sense without a "Marital Family." It appears that Monastic subjects' religious community makes up their "Family," and it is this community that seems to have the most positive effect upon Monastics' careers. This factor is important when one considers that of the more than 200 Female college presidents in this country, between 50% and 75% of them are Roman Catholic nuns. While further exploration of this phenomenon is indicated, it does suggest that "Family" operates differently for Monastics than it does for Marrieds and Singles.

Marrieds. It was expected that Married subjects would report the most amount of "Negative Effects of Family," since the obligations of a family could be expected to interfere more with the careers of Married subjects than with either Singles or Monastics. Unexpected results occurred on "Family Responsibilities" for Married subjects. Unlike Monastics, it was the Married Females more than the Married Males who chose "Another Person" to complete chores listed under "Family Responsibilities." It could be that Married Females had less access than Married Males to a marital partner who would complete these chores, since more Females than Males reported being in a Dual-Job Family. Furthermore, especially among administrative Chiefs, Married Females reported the highest percentage of chores completed by "Another Person." It is likely that the increased salary of Female Chief academic officers combined with the lack of a marital partner available to complete family chores enabled Married Females, more than any other group (after Monastics) to utilize outside help with "Family Responsibilities." Also somewhat unexpectedly, Married subjects more than Singles or Monastics, reported the most flexible "Family Plans." This suggests that, although families have the most "Negative Effects" for Married subjects, these very families seem to provide Married subjects with a support and security different from other Marital Statuses.

Perhaps because Married subjects expect their families to remain with them, regardless of future changes in their careers, families serve to function as a portable support system on which Marrieds, more than Monastics or Single Males, can depend. Only Single Females approximate the degree of flexibility reported by Marrieds for "Family Plans."

Singles. Results of "Family-Orientation Scales" for Single subjects were somewhat mixed, although expected. Singles reported the least "Positive Effects of Family," perhaps because unlike Marrieds or Monastics, Single subjects have neither a "Marital Family" or a religious community on whom they can depend for support and reinforcement. Singles were in the middle on "Negative Effects of Family," lower than Marrieds, but significantly higher than Monastics. This finding might be a reflection of the absence of traditional family support for Singles, rather than the presence of a family which creates obstacles to be overcome as in the pursuit of a Married subject's career. Interestingly, no significant differences for "Family Responsibilities" were found for Single subjects. Apparently the Single Marital Status functions as a great equalizer in distributing household chores between the sexes and among Administrative Levels. However, this was not the case of Family Scale Four, "Family Plans." Single Females, significantly more than Single Males, reported more flexible "Family Plans" scores comparable to those of all Married subjects. Why Single Females and not Single Males should be so high is unclear. Results indicated that Single Males are most like Monastic Females and Males in their lower scores on "Family Plans." This finding is somewhat unexpected. It could be that being Single lowers Males' satisfaction with the division of labor, since they have to complete most household chores themselves. This would not be the case for Single Females who, unlike Males, probably never expected anyone else to do these chores for them. Since the average age of subjects in this study was $\bar{X} = 49.76$ years, it is probable that Females and Males were socialized in traditional ways with regard to expectations of who would complete household chores.

Finally, for a variety of reasons, Single Females may perceive job changes in a more positive manner than Single Males. This interpretation would be consistent with findings of a recent study by Boyden-Management Women, a women's executive recruiting firm ("Women Execs Like to Relocate - A Study," 1981). Of 440 women executives, Single Females were found to be "...downright enthusiastic about opportunities to relocate ...," apt to earn between \$25,000 and \$45,000 a year, and to have at least one previous relocation to their credit. In the present study, Single Females and Married subjects of both sexes were the most flexible and positive about "Family Plans." This suggests that while "Family Plans" operate to restrict and limit Single Males and Monastics of both sexes, they appear to have the reverse effect on Single Females and Married subjects of both sexes. It should be noted that Married Males reported being the most satisfied with the division of labor, and most secure and in control of job changes relative to other subjects. These findings are provocative and suggest the need for further study.

Family-Related Demographic Factors

Parental Characteristics. Unlike the subjects who had achieved high levels of leadership positions in business corporations (Hennig and Jardim, 1977), subjects in the present study had Fathers and Mothers, who, in overwhelming numbers, were native-born Americans. Monastic subjects had the highest number of foreign-born parents. On the average, subjects' Fathers were somewhat more educated (High School Graduate) than subjects' Mothers (slightly less than High School Graduate). It should be noted that both parents of Female subjects were slightly more educated than both parents of Male subjects, but a large number of Monastic subjects' parents had attained only a Grade School Education. A similar pattern was found for parents' attained Occupational Level. Parents of Female subjects reached a higher Occupational Level than parents of Male subjects. A plurality of subjects' Fathers (22.6%) were Managers/Administrators, yet a majority of subjects' Mothers (61%) were Homemakers.

The degree to which their families were mobile when subjects were children was fairly low overall, and varied significantly only for Marital Status. Married subjects' families were significantly more mobile than the families of Monastic subjects ($p = .05$, Tukey HSD).

The responses given by their families for encouraging subjects to pursue their education varied primarily as a function of Sex (a significant factor in five of the six reasons), half the time as a function of Marital Status (three of the six reasons), and one-third of the time as a function of Administrative Level. In general, the families of Female subjects more often used the following reasons to encourage their daughters to pursue an education: (1) as a temporary activity until marriage, (2) as a supplement to their future spouse's income, (3) as a substitute for their future spouse's income, and (4) as an end in itself. The families of Male subjects more often urged their sons to pursue an education so that they could provide for others. It seems clear that these findings reflect traditional sex-role socialization patterns in which the education of Females is perceived by their families to have different values than the education of Males.

Own Family Factors. Even though Females in this study were not significantly older than Males, Males were found to have been married a significantly longer period of time than Females ($p = .017$). Chiefs and Deans were married significantly longer than Other-Administrators ($p = .05$). The educational level of subjects' partners varied significantly as a function of subjects' Sex. Female subjects' partners were more highly educated than were Male subjects' partners ($p = .0001$). Again, this finding is consistent with sex-role expectations that Females, but not Males, will marry someone with as much if not more education than they. Many more Males than Females reported not being in a Dual-Job Family ($p = .0001$). Of additional interest is the finding that Males who were Married and Males who were Chiefs reported having more children than comparable groups of Females. Over all Administrative Levels, Males had more children. These findings are consistent with previous studies in the business setting (Hennig and Jardim, 1977).

Earlier plans to Remain Single were more characteristic of Females than Males, more characteristic of Monastics than Marrieds. Females were less sure than Males of Marrying, but Having No Children, although most subjects reported they had not had these plans. Males more than Females had Planned to Marry and Have Children, with Married subjects more definite than either Singles or Monastics.

Career-Orientation Scales

Results indicated that nine of the ten "Career-Orientation Scales" showed significant differences on one or more of the independent variables (Sex, Administrative Level, Marital Status). Significant interactions were also found in eight of the ten "Career-Orientation Scales." Main effects for Sex were found in five scales, and contrary to expectations, Females scored significantly higher than Males on all of these. Main effects for Administrative Level were also found in four "Career-Orientation Scales," with Chiefs highest on three of these. The most frequent finding involved Marital Status, which was a significant factor in eight of ten "Career-Orientation Scales," with Married subjects highest on four of these eight. The results for each "Career-Orientation Scale" will be discussed separately.

A comparison of Monastic subjects will also be discussed in terms of Career-Scale 9: Activity and Variety of Work Experiences, and the "Self-Orientation" scale.

Career-Scale #1: Importance of a Job. Females reported that their careers were significantly more important to them than Males. This was unexpected, since much has been written about the importance of a career to the life of a man, and the lack of such importance for a woman. These results for higher education administrators provide evidence to counter this assumption. Women were found to value their careers even more than men.

As was expected, subjects differed significantly by Administrative Level, as well, in terms of the importance of their jobs. The higher the Administrative Level, the more important the job was reported. Thus, Chiefs valued their jobs most, followed by Deans, Other-Administrators, and Non-Administrative Faculty who valued their jobs least. It would appear then, that having a higher status administrative job increases its value to the holder. This can be seen clearly by the Non-Administrative Faculty group included as a comparison group to test the effects of an administrative career. These college Faculty members did not place as high a value on their jobs as did each of the administrative groups. The Sex by Administrative Level interaction further illustrates this finding. Both Female and Male Chiefs valued their jobs most of all. Females were higher than Males at every other Administrative Level, with the difference between Females and Males significant at the Non-Administrative Level. This suggests that while a lower administrative status results in lowered reports of job importance for both sexes, it is extremely so for Male Non-Administrators who reported the lowest score of all on "Importance of a Job."

Although the main effect for Marital Status was significant, the presence of a significant interaction between Sex and Marital Status, which was disordinal with respect to the main effect for Marital Status, forces one to dismiss the main effect for Marital Status as essentially meaningless for Females. Single Females considered their jobs more important than any other group of subjects, and significantly more important than Single Males.

Although the main effect for Marital Status was significant, the presence of a significant interaction between Marital Status and Administrative Level, which was disordinal with respect to the main effect for Marital Status, requires one to dismiss the effect of Marital Status as essentially misleading. Single Chiefs considered their jobs to be more important than any other group of subjects, and significantly more important than Married Chiefs or Monastic Chiefs. The Single group also showed evidence of the greatest disparity among Administrative Levels, with Chiefs significantly higher than Other-Administrators and Non-Administrators ($p = .01$), and Deans and Other-Administrators significantly higher than Non-Administrators ($p = .01$). This Single group reported both the highest and the lowest values on "Importance of a Job." This suggests that the Single group is the most heterogeneous of the three Marital Statuses, Monastics the most homogenous, and Marrieds in between. Perhaps it is the case that subjects who are Single choose to be so for very different reasons, and that the status of one's job carries greater importance for Singles than for Marrieds and Monastics. It is possible that most, if not all, of Singles' time and energies are devoted to their jobs. This would not be the case for Marrieds and Monastics who have their "Families" and "Religious Communities" to consider.

Career-Scale 2: Positive Reasons for Making a Job Change.

Significant differences were found for Sex, Marital Status and the Sex by Marital Status Interaction. Unexpectedly, Females reported higher scores than Males for "Positive Reasons for Making a Job Change." As expected, Singles were the most positive, Marrieds were next, and Monastics were least positive. These findings are consistent with a recent study of women executives which found Single women more willing to accept a geographic transfer within their companies than Married women ("Women Execs Like to Relocate - A Study," 1981). Further proof of this pattern can be found in the

Sex by Marital Status interaction. Single Females were highest on this scale. Certainly it would appear that Singles, more than Marrieds, and even more than Monastics, are freer of "Family" obligations that would tend to restrict one's job changes. However, it is only the Single Females who are most flexible and willing to risk a job change. Both Monastic Males and Females, as well as Single Males, were the three lowest scoring groups on this scale. It seems clear that limitations of some kind affect these groups of subjects in a different way than Single Females. Monastics are affected by their religion and related factors (Superiors, "Inner-Calling," Religious Vows) in a way that Singles and Marrieds are not. It is the Single Male group therefore, that is at most variance with the Single Female group on this scale, with the post hoc comparison difference highly significant.

Jessie Bernard's (1972) model of the lower status of Male Singles relative to the highest status of Female Singles may apply here as a partial explanation. Whereas the Single status seems to enhance Female subjects' risk-taking and flexibility, it seems to have the reverse effect on Males. Being Single for a Male is conceptualized as severely limiting which seems to imply weakness, fear of a job change, inflexibility, and lowered confidence. Exactly the opposite can be said of Single Females. It should be noted that Bernard's model regarding Male Singles applied to older Males of approximately middle age.

Additional support for this interpretation can be observed in the Sex by Marital Status interaction. Among Female subjects, Singles are highest on Positive Reasons for Making a Job Change, and significantly higher than Marrieds ($p = .05$) and Monastics ($p = .01$). But among Male subjects, it is the Male Marrieds who are highest and significantly higher than Male Monastics ($p = .01$). Marriage seems to enhance Males' but limit Females' ability to make "Positive Job Changes." Obviously, this is nothing new. Married

Males tended to be seen as the primary wage-earning partner and Males have traditionally taken the initiative in family moves that entailed relocations. Married Females have traditionally been seen (and have seen themselves) as secondary family wage-earners, and thus not as free to take advantage of "Positive Reasons for a Job Change," as would a Married Male. Single Females were found to report even higher scale scores than Married Males, a finding which was predicted.

Career-Scale 3: Negative Reasons for Making a Job Change.

Marital Status and the Sex by Marital Status interaction were found to be significant factors on this scale. Because of an empty cell in the Single group, the Single Marital Status dimension was not used in the Analysis of Variance, as described in the "Results" section. However, the scores for the Single groups will be discussed separately in terms of their relationship to the other two Marital Statuses.

Married subjects scored higher than Monastics on "Negative Reasons for Making a Job Change," and specifically it was Married Females who had the highest score of all. These interaction findings are different from those found in Career-Scale 2. Monastic Females and Males are lowest on "Negative Reasons for Making a Job Change." Perhaps this is so because the reasons for a Monastic's job change have more to do with issues involving their religious calling and spiritual life, than with "Family" issues such as were implied in this scale. Again, it would appear that marriage operates differently to affect Females' and Males' perceptions of their own flexibility in

making a job change. Married Females were highest on this scale, which suggests that they tend to be more reactive to negative events as the reason for a job change, making a move only when absolutely essential. However, Male Marrieds and Monastics are much less reactive to negative events, possibly because they take more initiative for positive reasons for making a job change without waiting for an unfortunate turn of career events to make a change necessary. It is interesting to note that the scores of the Single group were in between those of the Married and Monastics groups.

Career-Scale 4: Limits on Job Mobility. A scale related to Career-Scale 3: Negative Reasons for Making a Job Change was Career-Scale 4: Limits on Job Mobility. Significant main effects were found for Sex and Marital Status, as well as a significant interaction between Administrative Level and Marital Status.

While the overall scores were relatively low, and ranged between $\bar{X} = 1.6$ and $\bar{X} = 3.0$ on a seven-point scale, Females nonetheless saw themselves as significantly more limited than did Males on "Job Mobility" ($p = .02$). Not surprisingly, Marrieds were significantly higher than Singles and Monastics in the main effect for Marital Status. Perhaps for reasons similar to those discussed for Career-Scale 3, Marrieds see themselves as more limited in "Job Mobility" because of their family obligations. Similarly, Females would tend to consider others as limits to mobility in a way that Males would not. The dynamics of making a job change for a Female with a family might tend to involve a reactive process (Why I can't move). The dynamics of making a job change for a Male might tend to involve an initiating process (Why I can move). Although both Sex and Marital Status were significant, the interaction between them was definitely not ($p = .86$). Thus, marriage seems to operate similarly across both sexes so as to place greater limits on job mobility for Marrieds and for Females in general.

The trend of Administrative Level effects ($F = 2.11$; $p = .0991$) suggests an ordinal relationship in Limits on Job Mobility. Chiefs were least limited, followed by Deans, Other-Administrators and the

most limited group, Non-Administrators. Further, although the main effect for Administrative Level indicated a trend, the presence of a significant interaction between Administrative Level and Marital Status, which was disordinal with respect to the main effect for Administrative Level, prompts one to dismiss the trend of Administrative Level as essentially meaningless. Married subjects at all Administrative Levels reported the greatest limits on job mobility of all other groups. Of this Married group, both Other-Administrators and Non-Administrators were significantly more limited than Married Chiefs ($p = .01$, $p = .05$ respectively). The least limited group was the Single Chiefs, and the most limited group was the Married Other-Administrators. These findings are consistent with notions previously discussed, that marriage is the most limiting Marital Status, and Chiefs the least limiting Administrative Level.

Career-Scale 5: Positive Consequences of a Career. While the overall range of scale scores was fairly high, a mean score of $\bar{X} = 5.662$ ranging between 6.429 and 2.250 on a seven-point scale, Females reported that the "Positive Consequences of their Career" were significantly higher than Males ($p = .0331$). This was interesting and somewhat unexpected since the greater conflict that Females typically experienced between "Career" and "Family" as reported earlier did not operate here to deflate the score for "Positive Consequences of a Career." Monastics were highest and Singles lowest on this scale, a completely unexpected finding for Marital Status. Perhaps this occurred because the careers of Monastic subjects are so intimately involved with their religious calling that they can only be seen in positive terms. Further, it may be that Single subjects, including never-married, separated, divorced and widowed individuals, had experienced interruptions of family life such that they perceived the positive consequences of a career on their families in lesser terms.

Although the main effect for Sex was significant, the presence of a significant interaction between Sex and Marital Status, which was disordinal with respect to the main effect for Sex, forces one to dismiss the main effect for Sex as somewhat meaningless. Male

Monastics and Male Marrieds considered the "Positive Consequences of a Career" to be higher than Female Monastics and Female Marrieds. In fact, Male Monastics reported the highest score of all six groups. However, it is only in the Single group of subjects that Females outscored Males, and to a significant degree. It is interesting to note that, once again, Single Males had the lowest score of all six groups in perceiving the "Positive Consequences of their Careers." Again, it appears that the Single Status enhances Females' perceptions of the "Positive Consequences of their Careers" while it deflates the perceptions of Single Males. Bernard's (1972) model seems appropriate here as an explanation of these findings. According to Bernard:

In our society, the husband is assigned a superior status. It helps if he actually is somewhat superior in ways - in height, for example, or age or education or occupation - for such superiority, however slight, makes it easier for both partners to conform to the structural imperatives. The girl wants to be able to "look up" to her husband, and he, of course, wants her to. The result is a situation known sociologically as the marriage gradient (emphasis added).

By and large, both men and women tend to marry mates with the same general class and cultural background; there is "homogamy." But within that common background, men tend to marry women slightly below them in such measurable items as age, education, and occupation, and, presumably, in other as yet unmeasurable items as well. The result is that there is no one for the men at the bottom to marry, no one for the women at the top to look up to; there are no men who are superior to them. The result ... is that the never-married men tend to be "bottom-of-the barrel" and the women "cream of the crop."

(Bernard, 1972, pp. 35-36)

Although the main effect for Sex was significant, the presence of a significant interaction between Sex and Administrative Level, which was disordinal with respect to the main effect for Sex, once again forces a reconsideration of the main effect for Sex, particularly with respect to Females. The Chief group in particular is disordinal with respect to the main effect for Sex. Male Chiefs were significantly higher than Female Chiefs and reported the highest score of all eight groups on "Positive Consequences of a Career." Females outscored Males in the other administrative groups. It would seem that Male Chiefs perceived the value of their careers more positively than Female Chiefs, perhaps because Males have experienced fewer costs, conflicts, and crises with regard to their careers. In this study, Females in general reported more Conflict and Crises in the past year than Males. Perhaps the responsibilities of being a Chief administrator are so heavy that they tax the Female's already-strained resources, which is not the case for Males. Further, perhaps Females pay a heavier psychological price than Males and than lower administrative Females after reaching the top of the administrative ladder. This might be due to all of the internal and external barriers that Females have had to overcome which Males have not.

A significant three-way interaction was also observed between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status. Single-Female-Non-Administrators had the highest score and Single-Male-Non-Administrators had the lowest score of all twenty-four groups of subjects. This difference was significant. On the other hand, Married-Male-Chiefs were significantly higher than Married-Female-Chiefs on "Positive Consequences of a Career." Again, it appears that the Single Marital Status enhances a Female, but the Married Marital Status enhances a Male, in their own perceptions of their careers' effects.

Career-Scale 5: Positive Consequences of a Career appears to be measuring one of the most important dimensions of a "Career Orientation." Because significant differences were found for two

main effects and three interactions, results of this scale must be carefully considered. While the results are many and complex, it begins to appear that, as predicted, Administrative Level and Marital Status operate differently for Females than for Males with careers in higher education administration. It is interesting to compare these findings with those of Family-Scale 1: Positive Effect of Family. In both scales, Females were more positive than Males; Monastics were most positive of the three Marital Statuses, with Marrieds in the middle and Singles least positive; and Chiefs most positive of the four Administrative Levels, then Deans on both scales. The bottom two Administrative Levels were reversed in Family-Scale 1, but this difference was not significant. A similar pattern was observed for the Sex by Administrative Level interaction: Male Chiefs were most positive, Male Non-Administrators least positive of all eight groups. A similar, though not identical pattern was also noticed in the Sex by Marital Status interaction. Over all, it appears that results of these two scales are entirely consistent with one another: high scores on Family-Scale 1 are related to high scores on Career-Scale 5.

Career-Scale 6: Negative Consequences of a Career. The grand mean for this scale was $\bar{X}_G = 2.152$, relatively low on a scale from one to seven, indicating that most subjects perceived the "Negative Consequences of a Career" to be relatively minor. Of further importance is the fact that this scale produced no significant findings, in contrast to its inverse, Career-Scale 5: Positive Consequences of a Career, which was highly significant on most main effects and interactions. Apparently, careers in higher education administration are perceived by subjects to carry few costs and many positive consequences.

While not significant, the following observations are of interest:

- (1) Females reported more negative consequences of a career than Males;
- (2) Marrieds reported the most, Monastics the least negative consequences of a career;
- (3) Non-Administrators reported the most, Chiefs the least

negative consequences of a career;

(4) Married Females reported the most, Monastic Males the least negative consequences of a career in the Sex by Marital Status interaction;

(5) Male Non-Administrators reported the most, Male Deans the least negative consequences of a career in the Sex by Administrative Level interaction;

(6) Married Non-Administrators reported the most, Monastic Chiefs the least negative consequences of a career in the Administrative Level by Marital Status interaction; and

(7) Male-Monastic-Non-Administrators were the most negative and Male-Monastic-Chiefs were the least negative for the Sex by Administrative Level by Marital Status interaction.

While many of these findings (#1, 2, 3, 4) parallel those of other scales, the results of Career-Scale 6 are most noteworthy for two reasons: (1) the range of negative consequences of a career are at the low end of the scale, and (2) while differences among subjects were noted, none were significant, or even approached significance.

It is interesting to compare these findings with those for Family-Scale 2: Negative Effects of Family. In both scales, Females' scores were more negative than Males, although this difference was not significant on either scale. Marrieds were the most negative of the three Marital Statuses, then Singles and Monastics, who were the least negative, with differences significant only on Family-Scale 2. On both scales Non-Administrators were most negative and Chiefs least negative although this difference was not significant on either scale.

The pattern for the Sex by Administrative Level interaction was similar, although not identical for both scales. On both Family-Scale 2 and Career-Scale 6 Male Non-Administrators had the most negative scores and Male Chiefs on Family-Scale 2 and Male Deans on Career-Scale 6 had the least negative scores. Further, the pattern for the Sex by Marital Status interaction, though not

identical, was also highly similar. Female Marrieds had the most negative scores and Male Monastics the least negative scores on both scales.

Over all, it appears that results for these two scales, like "Positive Effects for Family and for Career" scales, are also consistent with one another. High scores on Family-Scale 2 are usually related to high scores on Career-Scale 6. Thus, subjects who experienced their families with negative effects and consequences may also tend to experience their careers in the same way. This finding was the same, in reverse, for "Positive Effects of Family and of Career" (Family-Scale 1 and Career-Scale 5).

Career-Scale 7: Professional Activity. Chiefs reported the highest amount of "Professional Activity" in the form of published articles and books and professional presentations. Within Administrative Level, Chiefs were significantly more active than both Other-Administrators and Non-Administrators. This finding is somewhat surprising, in view of the amount of responsibilities Chief administrators typically have to handle. Perhaps the Chief administrative position offers more opportunity to delegate responsibilities and thus leaves more time for professional productivity. However, when the third-order interaction between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status is observed, an alternative explanation is suggested. The group of Married Males is not only most productive of all Chiefs, but most productive of all other groups as well. Married-Male-Chiefs' score is significantly higher than that of the Single-Female-Chiefs, who were the most productive of all Females. This was the only between-sex difference found in this interaction. This finding suggests that, once again, the Married Marital Status is related to enhanced output for a Male, whereas the Single Marital Status is related to enhanced output for a Female. Although the main effect for Marital Status was significant, the presence of a significant interaction between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status, which was disordinal with respect to the main effect for Marital Status, must be carefully considered and

interpreted cautiously for Females.

Of further interest is what was not found. Previous research has indicated that Married Females were the most productive of all Females in amount of publications (Bernard, 1964; Theodore, 1971). However, in the present study, Single Females were most productive, Monastic Females least productive. However, Married Males were most productive and Single Males least productive. While the Sex by Marital Status interaction was not significant for this scale, this finding is supported by the three-way interaction between Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status, which was significant. When the productivity scores are ranked, it appears that Married Males are highest with Single and Married Females next in order, followed by Monastic and Single Males, and Monastic Females who were the least productive of all (see Table 7).

<u>TABLE 7</u>		
<u>MARITAL STATUS</u>	<u>CAREER-SCALE 7 SCORE*</u>	<u>RANK</u>
Married Males	1.1900	1
Single Females	.9529	2
Married Females	.8822	3
Monastic Males	.8752	4
Single Males	.8236	5
Monastic Females	.5804	6

(* scores are standardized)

Career-Scale 8: Continuity of Work History. An uninterrupted work history is represented by a low score on Career-Scale 8, a high score is indicative of more interruptions. Only the main effect for Marital Status was found to be significant. Married subjects had the lowest score and therefore the least interrupted work history. Singles had the highest score and therefore the most interrupted work history, with Monastics in between. This finding was somewhat unexpected, since the reverse had been assumed: that Singles would have the fewest interruptions and that Marrieds would have the most.

A possible explanation for these results may be found in the items which made up the scale. It is likely that, because Married subjects (particularly Females) are less mobile than Single subjects, Marrieds may have had fewer breaks in work history and thus fewer interruptions than Singles. Perhaps it is also the case that Married subjects (men as well as women) were less willing to take risks than Singles (for economic or personal reasons) and would not tolerate any breaks in employment. Because Singles were more likely to be responsible only for themselves, they may have felt freer to move, to take part-time jobs, and to endure periods without having a job.

Career-Scale 9: Activity and Variety of Work Experiences.

A great deal of activity and variety of work experiences is represented by a high score on Career-Scale 9, and little activity and variety is indicated by a low score. The main effect for Sex was significant, with Females scoring higher than Males. This suggests that the employment patterns for Females in this study were richer and more varied than those for Males.

The main effect for Administrative Level was also significant, with Chiefs scoring highest, followed by Deans, Other-Administrators and Non-Administrators, in descending order. Perhaps it is the case that Chiefs have had the longest careers and Other-Administrators the shortest ones. It should be noted that the mean age for Chiefs was $\bar{X} = 52.9$ years, for Deans $\bar{X} = 48.72$, for Other-Administrators $\bar{X} = 46.8$, and for Non-Administrators $\bar{X} = 50.64$ years. This would have enabled Chiefs to have held more jobs and to have made a greater number of changes than Other-Administrators. While older than Deans and Other-Administrators, the Non-Administrative group of Faculty may not have moved around as much as the administrators and thus scored lowest on this scale.

Finally, the Sex by Administrative Level interaction was also found to be significant, with Female Chiefs scoring the highest and Male Non-Administrators the lowest on this scale. Chiefs of both sexes were most active and varied in their work experiences relative to the other groups. The administrative groups of Male

Deans, Male Other-Administrators, and Male Non-Administrators were the least active and varied in work experiences. The difference between Female and Male Other-Administrators was significant, as was the difference between Female and Male Non-Administrators. In every administrative group, Females scored higher than Males and were therefore more active and varied in their work experiences.

Whether Females have been forced to make job changes because of family obligations such as following one's partner, obeying one's superiors, or because of personal desire and choice such as a greater willingness to try a new position, to take a risk, or both, is not clear. What is clear, however, is an employment pattern for Females in this study that reflects a greater amount of activity and variety than that for Males. This finding needs to be investigated more fully in order to determine if this is the case only for Females in higher education administration, or whether it is true of Females in general. It certainly seems to support the notion that because Females have more frequently been the victims of discrimination, they have had to try harder and be better prepared and qualified than Male peers in order to obtain comparable positions. Touchton and Shavlik's observation that men are often hired for their potential, women for their experience seems appropriate in interpreting results of Career-Scale 9 (Touchton and Shavlik, 1978, p. 101).

Career-Scale 10: Amount of Job Activity. Career-Scale 10 attempted to quantify the amount of subjects' job activity. The items comprising the scale were measured by responses in number of years. A significant main effect was found for Administrative Level, with Non-Administrators reporting the highest score, followed in descending order by Chiefs, Other-Administrators, and Deans. It appears that Faculty who are not administrators have had the greatest amount of job activity over all subjects. Faculty tenure and promotion policies may play a part in this finding in that Non-Administrative Faculty may tend to stay in one institution

longer in order to satisfy institutional criteria for advancement in faculty rank. Such longevity seems not to be related to administrative advancement, for Deans have the lowest amount of job activity of all administrative groups, yet are second highest in status.

A significant main effect was also found for Marital Status, with Monastics reporting the highest score, then Singles and lowest were Marrieds. Monastic individuals were also the oldest of the three Marital Statuses, and may have worked longer. It is possible that they may have been in the same position at the same institution for significantly longer periods of time than Marrieds or Singles because of "Family" and "Religious Community" obligations, as well as issues connected with their religious vows.

However, when the significant Sex by Marital Status interaction is examined, the main effect for Marital Status alone is consistent only for Females. Among Males, Singles had the highest score, significantly higher than Female Singles, and Married Males had the lowest score. Single Males were most like Monastic Females in "Amount of Job Activity." This finding is supported by the significant third-order interaction of Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status. Single-Male-Non-Administrators were the highest in job activity of all subject groups, followed next by Monastic-Female-Non-Administrators. The lowest scores for job activity were reported by two groups of Deans: Single-Male-Deans and Married-Female-Deans.

Within the Non-Administrative group, except for Single-Non-Administrators, Monastic-Female-Non-Administrators and Monastic-Male-Non-Administrators, as well as Married-Female-Non-Administrators and Married-Male-Non-Administrators did not differ significantly from one another on amount of job activity. Only Single-Male-Non-Administrators and Single-Female-Non-Administrators differed significantly, with Males at the high end and Females at the low end of the range.

While this finding is consistent with those of other scales in which the scores of Single Males and Single Females differed significantly from one another, the reasons for the difference remain unclear. It may be that Single-Male-Non-Administrative Faculty are more concerned with security and less willing to venture from a tenured faculty position, which they are more likely to have attained than a comparable Female. Or, it may be that Single-Female-Non-Administrative Faculty have not had the same opportunities for tenure as have the Males, and so have been forced by necessity to move more frequently when they have been denied tenure. The extreme difference in amount of job activity between Single-Male-Non-Administrators and all other Non-Administrative groups suggests that, for whatever reasons, forces are operating on this group of Males that tend to keep them in the same job, at the same institution, for longer periods of time relative to all other groups of subjects. Further exploration of this phenomenon is needed.

Monastic Subjects Compared

Monastic subjects differed from Married and Single subjects in their willingness to answer questions related to "Family-Orientation," a focus of this research project reported elsewhere (Mark, 1982). The comparison of Monastic subjects has relevance for both "Self-Orientation" and "Career-Scale 9." Approximately 40% of the 222 Monastic subjects chose not to answer most of the "Family-Orientation" scale items. This occurred even though every effort was made to make these items appropriate for response by Monastic subjects. Because such a non-response rate of 40% within one sub-group of subjects could not be considered a random event, a comparison was made between Monastic subjects who did answer and did not answer "Family-Orientation" items. This comparison indicated that the two groups of Monastic subjects did differ significantly on four of nineteen variables, only two of which concern "Self" and "Career" issues. In each of the four instances, Monastic subjects who did answer the scale items reported significantly higher mean scores than Monastic subjects who did not answer "Family" scale items.

Thus, Monastics who chose to answer "Family-Orientation" scales had a higher "Self-Orientation" score and had a greater amount of activity and variety of work experiences. This suggests that Monastics who answered were more willing than Monastics who did not to place a greater emphasis on themselves and their own personal development and were more willing or able to move around in order to obtain a greater variety of work experiences. In addition to these significant differences, Monastic subjects who chose to answer compared to Monastics who did not answer were also younger. Taken altogether, this pattern of differences suggests greater self-reliance on the part of Monastics who did answer, as well as greater flexibility in career moves.

Perhaps the most interesting and important conclusion to be drawn with regard to a comparison of Monastic subjects was that those who answered were more similar than different from those Monastics who did not answer "Family-Orientation" scales. Such a conclusion suggests that, except where noted, the results of the present study, based on Monastic Marital Status, may be generalized to all Monastic subjects, regardless of whether or not they chose to answer "Family-Orientation" items.

Summary

The basic research questions that this study was designed to answer involved whether or not women and men at differing levels of higher education administration and of differing marital statuses differed in their orientations to "Self" and "Family" and "Career." The results provide clear evidence that women and men in this study do differ with respect to these and other dependent variables, although the pattern of results is complex, and at times unexpected.

"Self-Orientation" - Contrary to predictions, and also to stereotyped views of Females as "Other-Centered" compared to Males as "Self-Centered," results indicated that Females had significantly higher "Self-Orientation" scores than Males at the two lowest Administrative Levels (Other-Administrators and Non-Administrators). The greatest variability of "Self" scores occurred within the Single Marital Status. The lowest "Self" score was reported by Single Non-Administrators and the highest score by Single Chiefs and Single

Deans. Perhaps Males and Single Non-Administrators are more singular in their pursuit of career goals, while Females and Single Chiefs and Single Deans may have a greater amount of personal interests and a more extensive support system.

Having a personal bank account was conceptualized as a factor related to independence and autonomy, both of which have been related to the leadership dimension. Subjects were found to differ only by Marital Status for this variable, with Single and Married subjects reporting having many more such accounts than Monastics. Females were more likely than Males to have had a Role Model ($p = .01$) and a Mentor ($p = .0468$). Significantly more conflict in the past year was experienced by Married subjects than by Monastics ($p = .05$), although only a trend was found for Sex differences ($p = .073$). However, Females did report experiencing significantly more crises in the past year than Males ($p = .000$). This finding is consistent with Gupta's (1981) report of women managers experiencing more stress than men. Finally, Monastic subjects reported having the greatest amount of Life Satisfaction of all Marital Statuses, and were significantly more satisfied than Singles ($p = .05$). These findings cast doubt on our notions of the importance of a career to a Female in higher education administration, as well as the impact of Marital Status and Administrative Level on "Self-Orientation" and other self-related factors.

Family. Marital Status proved to be the most significant factor differentiating subjects on each of the four "Family-Orientation Scales." Using Marital Status to characterize subjects in general: (1) Monastics were highest on "Positive Effects of Family," lowest on "Negative Effects of Family," had the least amount of "Family Responsibilities," and were least flexible on "Family Plans;" (2) Marrieds were in the middle on "Positive Effects of Family," and highest on "Negative Effects of Family." Married Female Chiefs were significantly higher than Married Male Chiefs, and higher than all other Married Female administrators, in the amount of "Family Responsibilities" done by another person. Married subjects of both sexes were most

flexible on "Family Plans;" and (3) Singles were lowest on "Positive Effects of Family," in the middle on "Negative Effects of Family," showed no significant differences on "Family Responsibilities," and had moderate flexibility on "Family Plans" where Single Females were significantly higher than Single Males.

As predicted, Females had fewer children and had been married significantly fewer years than Males. It was expected that Married subjects would report the highest "Negative Effects of Family," since the obligations of a family could be assumed to interfere more with the careers of Married subjects than with either Single or Monastic subjects.

Contrary to expectations, Monastic subjects reported the highest "Positive Effects of Family" and Singles the lowest on this scale. All subjects, including Monastics, were asked to consider whomever they wished as part of their "Family," since in the traditional sense, all but Marrieds were without a "marital family." It appears that the Monastics' religious community makes up their "Family," and it is this community that seems to have the most positive effect upon Monastics' careers. This factor is important when one considers that of the more than 200 women college presidents in this country, between 50% and 75% are estimated to be Roman Catholic nuns. For this significant majority of Female college presidents then, "Family" is operating in a supportive, positive way that is not the case for Married or Single subjects. While further exploration of this phenomenon is indicated, it does suggest that "Family" operates differently for Females than it does for Males, and differently for Monastics than it does for Marrieds or Singles.

Career. For "Career-Orientation" nine of the ten scales had significant results. Contrary to expectations, main effects for Sex were found in five Career-Scales with Females significantly higher than Males in each instance. Main effects for Administrative Level were found on four Career-Scales with Chiefs highest on three of these four. Main effects for Marital Status were found on eight of the ten Career-Scales with Marrieds highest on four of these eight. Significant interactions were found in eight of the ten Career-Scales.

Females reported their careers were more important to them than Males, perceived their careers in more positive terms than Males, had greater limits on job mobility than Males, and perceived the positive consequences of their careers more highly than Males. These results, while significant, were not expected, and cast doubt on the meaning and value of a career for administrators in higher education as typically reported in the literature. The present study provides evidence that, at least for Females in higher education administration, careers are even more important to them than to their Male counterparts.

Chiefs valued their careers most of all Administrative Levels, and unexpectedly, had the highest amount of professional activities in the form of published articles and books and professional presentations. Contrary to expectations, Married subjects considered their careers most important of the three Marital Statuses. However, as expected, Married subjects had the highest score on "Negative Reasons for Making a Job Change." This probably reflects the larger range of commitments to other people that limit job changes for Married individuals. Married subjects were also the most limited in terms of job mobility. Monastic subjects saw their careers in the most positive light of all Marital Statuses and also had the greatest amount of work experiences.

With regard to "Career-Orientedness," much has been written about the importance of a career to the life of a man and the lack of such importance to a woman. That significant results were found in nine of the ten career scales, often in unexpected directions, suggests that the research literature and theory is incomplete with respect to the effects of Sex, Administrative Level and Marital Status on career issues.

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